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Psychoeducational Role of Coaching in developing Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being.

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Introduction

At the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st century, global society has gone through massive economic and technological transformation. Such rapid change dynamics has affected organizations worldwide and shifted the expectations of the workplace towards the employees and hence created new demands and requirements for the educational system (Dede, 2010). New skillset - called the 21st century skills - are skills and abilities that have become a necessity to succeed in educational workplaces, businesses, and government organizations. Such skills are also vastly required from students graduating from higher education institutions in order to be a great employee, create an output required by the organizations and be adaptable within the constantly changing environment of a modern workplace (Dede, 2010).

Trilling and Fadel (2009) suggested grouping 21st century skills into three areas: learning and innovation skills (including for example critical thinking, problem solving, communication or innovation), digital literacy skills (including for example information and communication technologies literacy) and career and life skills (like flexibility, agility, initiative, productivity, adaptability or accountability). According to Trilling and Fadel (2009), 21st century skills have been identified as the most desired qualities of modern pedagogy. Coaching as a pedagogical approach meets the demands of the modern workforce on many levels and helps coachees develop 21st century skills.

Such an example of a rapid change across the organizations that would create new expectations towards workforce worldwide - is the outbreak of the pandemic of COVID-19. The companies across the entire world started facing unprecedented challenges practically overnight as their employees were pushed to remote work. What became everyday reality are the feelings of isolation, confusion, negativity and a draining struggle to simply cope (Grensing-Pophal, 2020; ICF, 2020a, 2020b; Dans, 2020). Stress, well-being, mental health and emotional challenges the global workforce is facing these days are higher than ever before.

Scientific research indicates that some behavioral interventions that focus on enhancing psychological well-being such as coaching, positive psychological interventions, or life review

therapy - successfully increase levels of psychological well-being (Fava *et al.*, 2005; Weiss *et al.,* 2016). What helps individuals adapt, find ways to utilize their potential to their advantage and cope successfully in changing environments is also emotional intelligence - resilience and flexibility in particular (Bar-On, 2002). Coaching - specifically when targeting these two competencies - can help individuals adapt and work through their fear and negativity (Neale *et al.*, 2009). Coaching as an intervention is one of the approaches that can successfully help individuals, teams and organizations develop their emotional intelligence in general (Neale *et al.*, 2009).

There is a growing evidence that coaching can enhance emotional intelligence and well-being (Green *et al.,* 2006; Neale *et al.*, 2009). The objective of this study is to analyze the role of coaching as an approach enhancing emotional intelligence and well-being, with specific focus on psychoeducational aspects.

The study comprises 4 parts. Part I presents the context of the study, provides a thorough review of the scientific literature on the notions of coaching, well-being, emotional intelligence and psychoeducation; and shares a detailed overview of how coaching can be placed within various pedagogical frameworks. Part II of the study gives a thorough walkthrough of the research methodology: research design, research methods, techniques and tools, the empirical study design as well as data collecting and processing procedures. Part III of the study presents research results and findings along with the discussion. Part IV - the final part of the study - gives an overview of its limitations, gives directions for future research and discusses the practical applications of the results obtained. The study is closed with conclusions.

PART I: Study background and literature review

Part I of the study presents the context of the study giving its full background (Chapter 1) and provides a thorough review of the scientific literature on the notions of coaching, well-being, emotional intelligence and psychoeducation (Chapters 2-5). Part I ends with a detailed overview of how coaching can be placed within various pedagogical frameworks, as well as its role in pedagogy and differences between coaching and educating (Chapter 6).

CHAPTER 1. Placing the Study in Context

Chapter 1 places the study in context by providing its background and clarifying the link between coaching and positive psychology, as many achievements of positive psychology have been applied as part of coaching both theoretical and practical foundations. This chapter ends with a characterization of the age group chosen for this study and the reasoning behind such a choice.

1.1 Study background

Adults go through profound changes when in college/university due to the influence of their emotional intelligence and social abilities. After graduation, when entering the labor market, they often feel overwhelmed. They may experience low stress tolerance, difficulties adjusting to change, and poor emotional management skills (Li *et al.*, 2012). A transition from high education to the professional realm exerts extra pressure on all aspects of being: intellectual, emotional and social, and as a result also impacts well-being. Yet, research shows that future achievements and success relies heavily on emotional intelligence (Li *et al.*, 2012). The end of formal education does not mean the end of education and growth as a human being. Graduates these days constitute an increasingly higher proportion of the labor force and they are more likely than other groups to engage in lifelong learning or explore wider learning possibilities (Brooks, 2006). Coaching is an approach that supports lifelong learning and constitutes an example of such activity.

Coaching is a relatively new cross-disciplinary industry (as an industry, coaching fully emerged in the 1990s) that has been consistently gaining more attention, recognition, and criticism (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010). As described by Williams (2003), coaching as an industry fully emerged in the 1990s. According to a Global Coaching Study (International Coach Federation [ICF], 2016), there are nearly 17,500 coaches in North America and their number exceeds 50,000 worldwide. The industry generates annual revenue of $955 million in North America and $2.4 billion globally (ICF, 2016).

Coaching is a motivational approach, facilitating behavioral changes that consequently lead to enhanced well-being and better personal functioning (Grant & O'Hara, 2006; Green *et al.*, 2006; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010). Coaching has separated itself from a traditional therapeutic domain in the sense that: it is focused on future outcomes, not past issues; a coach is a "thought partner" in a coaching relationship, not an expert; and a coach perceives coachees as healthy and perfectly capable of generating their own solutions (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011; ICF, 2019a). There is growing scientific evidence that coaching is an efficient approach to facilitate behavior/personality change and enhance the quality of life (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010).

Emotions constitute a significant aspect of human nature, motivating our behavior. Emotional Intelligence - the ability to recognize, control, manage and express emotions - has gained significant recognition in the past couple of decades. Emotional intelligence and the existing theories allow us to understand how people read themselves and others, how they relate to others, how they adapt and cope successfully in changing environments (Bar-On, 2002). It has been suggested that emotional intelligence is an important indicator of life satisfaction and future success in many aspects of life (Goleman 1995; BarOn, 2002; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). The empirical evidence of the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence is still very limited with few scientifically grounded studies available. Robust research on the effectiveness of coaching in developing emotional intelligence is lacking (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017; Groves *et al*. 2008; McEnrue et al. 2010).

In the last 20 years, the focus in mental health care has shifted from treating or preventing

mental health complaints to promoting well-being (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Keyes, 2007; Weiss *et al.*, 2016). High levels of psychological well-being is related with lower psychopathology, lower risk of mental illness, better physical health and a longer life duration (Ryff, 2014). The evidence of positive effects of psychological well-being is growing and so is the number of empirical studies on behavioral interventions that focus on enhancing psychological well-being (Fledderus, 2010). Scientific research has demonstrated that some interventions - well-being therapy, positive psychological interventions, life review therapy for example - are successful in enhancing psychological well-being (Fava *et al.*, 2005; Lee *et al.*, 2005; Weiss *et al.,* 2016).

The scientific knowledge base allowing us to understand positive emotions, engagement, meaning, well-being or flourishing is growing. These positive characteristics, moods and states allow to fight depression, improve mental health, life satisfaction, and they promote learning (Seligman *et al*., 2005; Fredrickson, 1998). Also, as indicated by scientific research, well-being related skills can be taught (Seligman *et al.*, 2009). This is where psychoeducation can play a crucial role and help individuals develop these skills.

There is a correlation between well-being, an individual experiencing positive emotions and learning, which is the primary goal of traditional education. "*More well-being is synergistic with better learning. Increases in well-being are likely to produce increases in learning*" (Seligman *et al.*, 2009). Positive emotions create a broader attention span and boost creative thinking (Bolte *et al*., 2003; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Kuhl, 1983). Negative emotions, on the other hand, have a detrimental effect on the attention span, resulting in more critical thinking and more analytic processing (Bolte et al., 2003; Kuhl, 1983, 2000).

It has been suggested that with all its benefits to individual psychological health and learning, well-being and happiness should be taught in school. Seligman *et al.* (2009) list a few reasons. Well-being is negatively correlated with depression, well-being has been shown to increase life satisfaction and happiness, and finally - well-being leads to better and deeper learning, allows the individual to open her mind and results in more creative thinking. Schools

and universities, as institutions assisting individuals across an important part of their lives, have therefore a unique opportunity to try to enhance well-being.

Coaching as an approach is aligned with recent developments in education (Bennet & Culpan, 2014). The coaching process is highly associated with learning and has been more and more frequently utilized in education (Hargreaves, 2005; Claxton, 2008). According to Tinning (2010), pedagogy is a fundamental element in the coaching process. As such, a pedagogical framework should inspire and challenge coaches (educators) to think about current learnings (*the what)*, the process of learning (*the how)*, and the role of a coach as a professional who facilitates that learning (Fosnot, 1996).

Positive psychology has also had a high impact on the coaching field by providing theories and scientific evidence and so much more (Hefferon, 2011; Kauffman, 2006; Kauffman and Scouler, 2004). Coaching has greatly benefited from research studies provided by positive psychology researchers, reliable and valid assessment tools, techniques and strategies, as well as access to new interventions, and innovative developments to traditional helping approaches (Passmore *et al.*, 2013).

The coaching process creates various learning opportunities for coachees which inspires change and growth across multiple areas of coachee's personal and professional life (Whitworth et al., 1998; Starr, 2003; Zeus & Skiffington, 2000). It has been suggested that when coachees are facing difficulties, they are able to rely on past learnings, deepen their current learning, and change their behavior as a result (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011).

Coaching in various forms - educational coaching, career coaching or workplace coaching for example - as a pedagogical approach also meets the demands of the modern workforce on many levels and helps coachees develop 21st century skills. Coaching teachers - *educational coaching* - is a reliable and established professional practice in order to help teachers develop their professional skills (Wood *et al.*, 2016). According to Wood *et al.* (2016), coaching as a method stands out compared to other practices in terms of efficacy - the influence coaching has on teacher practice exceeds results obtained by other professional development methods (Wood et al., 2016). Professional career coaching could be added at an earlier stage of education

to help young people master the the 21st century skills allowing them to meet the expectations of the modern workplace and so that they would not need to pay such a high price in terms of well-being, stress and potentially mental health problems for challenges they are facing at work (Brock, 2014; Skiffington & Zeus, 2003).

1.2 Coaching and positive psychology

Coaching is a developing industry, however, it is still considered to be in its early developmental stage. Grant *et al*. (2010) point out that a well-established knowledge base that would support coaching as a scientific field is lacking. Numerous empirical studies report on the coaching approach used in a variety of studies on different issues and populations (Grant, 2006). The body of empirical evidence has grown rapidly since the end of the 20th century (Palmer & Whybrow, 2005). However, further research is required especially to establish the definition of coaching and specific techniques used by practitioners in coaching interventions (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007). Because the research foundations are lacking, coaches still face a challenge when conducting research such that they need to focus on developing human development theories and research designs to empirically be able to show the efficacy of coaching.

Various theories and models from the psychological field contributed to improving coaching approach, processes and techniques (Grant, 2001). According to Donaldson *et al*. (2011), “many have claimed that the emerging area within psychology known as positive psychology holds a great promise for advancing knowledge about optimal human functioning and improving the quality of life in modern societies”. The achievements of positive psychology have long been applied to improve the lives of individuals, or even societies. Many areas within positive psychology are well defined with a well established research field and statistically sound results. This field of research can therefore serve as a background or foundation for new fields within humanistic sciences. Some examples of such research are: well-being, character strengths or positive emotions (Donaldson et al., 2011).

Based on Kashdan and Ciarrochi (2013), the field of positive psychology is "*about valued experiences: well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism*

(for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present)". The principle of positive psychology states that well-being and happiness are not simply the opposite of distress, or the opposite of sadness, or the opposite of depression or any other disorder. Positive psychology in its principle focuses on positive experiences - defining them but also determining how to achieve them; strengths - what are they, what makes *strength* a strength; and positive relationships - those we form with our friends, community, or family.

Coaching as a relatively new approach, can benefit from the achievements of science of positive psychology. Some examples include work life and organizations - positive psychology has allowed individuals to improve many aspects of professional functioning: leadership, coaching practices, organizational effectiveness, psychological capital, employee well-being or productivity (Ko & Donaldson, 2011). There is a significant number of scientific studies available explaining how the science of positive psychology can help improve work life, and how applied practices can result in better work. Coaching research as a relatively new emerging field has been able to benefit from the advancement of positive psychology in work- and organizations-related (also other) fields.

According to Grant (2001) the aim of coaching is sustained behavioral, cognitive, and emotional changes facilitating goal attainment and individual personal or professional performance improvement. Many researchers have realized that it is not possible to strictly separate professional and personal areas of life and that both areas are intertwined and interdependent. As work effectiveness and well-being also constitute concerns of the coaching field, the achievements of positive psychology within improving human and organizational behavior and functioning have been of high interest for coaching researchers (Donaldson, 2011; Kauffman, 2009; Seligman, 2007).

Positive psychology has established itself as an approach focused on human flourishing, enhancing resources, skills, strengths, and creating positive qualities and relationships (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). It has separated itself from the traditional psychological approach where the focus is on resolving issues, repairing what's broken, and addressing weaknesses to eliminate them. The focus of positive psychology is the flourishing side of human development

and investigating how people build happiness, well-being and wellness in normal circumstances (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The coaching field emerged on the assumption - encouraged by the achievements of positive psychology - that individuals can focus on what is positive in life and create more of it. Coaching in its premise recognizes that individuals can be inspired to "*live out their potential*" (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007). The natural tendency of the coaching approach is to emphasize positivity, optimism and growth.

Out of the achievements of positive and coaching psychology has encouraged some researchers to create a scientific, research field called positive psychology coaching. Positive psychology coaching applies the main concepts of positive psychology to the field of coaching thus creating an empirically sound, well-defined, scientific field and knowledge base (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007).

It has been indicated that positive psychology and coaching psychology are very similar approaches, or even that coaching psychology could be treated as a subfield of applied positive psychology (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007; Linley & Kauffman, 2007). Another similarity is described as though coaching is a practical mechanism which helps the theory of positive psychology be applied and transformed into an action (Peterson, 2006). Indeed, these two fields can be perceived as similar in the sense that both are strength-orientated and bring forth a concept that healthy individuals have resources to address their own challenges and solve their own problems (Kauffman & Scoular, 2004). It seems therefore that positive psychology has the capacity to offer a theoretical framework for coaching (Kauffman *et al*., 2009). As a similar field, it can offer theories, techniques, assessments, interventions, and theoretical models that coaching is lacking in order to help coaching reach the objectives of its process.

Researchers point out three similarities between coaching and positive psychology: (1) the focus is improvement of performance (both professional and personal), (2) both focus on the positive aspects of the individuals and their environment, (3) both emphasize the importance of strengths (versus weaknesses) in human functioning (Linley & Harrington, 2005). The concept of character strengths has emerged from the notion of trying to improve the positive aspects (rather than the negative) of individual functioning, behavior, and experience (Govindji &

Linley, 2007; Linley & Joseph, 2004). The concept of strengths has since been used as a practical tool by positive psychologists.

The concept of strengths has many definitions, however, Linley and Harrington (2006) have suggested that a definition of *strength* should touch on both the process and the outcome achieved when using strengths. They provide the following definition: "*a natural capacity for behaving, thinking or feeling in a way that allows optimal functioning and performance in the pursuit of valued outcomes*". According to Linley and Harrington (2006) the fact that coaching encourages using one's strengths allows individuals to use their strengths in a creative way, that produce many desirable results: high engagement, high level of energy, high level of motivation, enhanced well-being, increased happiness and lower level of depression (Govindji & Linley, 2007; Seligman *et al*., 2005). Coaches recognize two types of strengths depending on the context in which they are being used by the individual - interpersonal strengths and intrapersonal strengths (optimism, time orientation, or appreciating the present) - and offer interventions adapted to the type of strength that is being used (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007). According to Kauffman (2009), similar to positive psychology, coaching recognizes the importance of high quality of work on positive emotion, hope, flow and strengths. Biswas-Diener & Dean (2007), on the other hand, specifically highlight the importance of positivity, happiness, and strengths in coaching interventions.

As positive psychology focuses on positive emotions amongst other concepts, one of its objectives is to fully comprehend how positive emotions actually work. Other fields may focus on building the understanding of the coping mechanism - how an individual would cope when experiencing negative anxiety, like sadness, loneliness, or anxiety. According to Fredrickson (2001), positive emotions play a very important role in daily life - they improve some of the psychological functions, empowerment for example. Research indicates that positive emotions enhance: immune function, resistance to infections, and resilience. It has also been shown that positive emotions are a good predictor of well-being. On top of that, positive emotions improve teamwork and productivity (Fredrickson & Kurtz, 2011). What is also paramount, the impact positive emotions have on the functioning of the individual can be measured. Hence, positive

emotions may be used in coaching when setting the goals of the coaching process or when discussing the desired outcomes with the coachee (Passmore *et al.,* 2013).

One of the positive emotions highlighted by the field of positive psychology is happiness as this emotion brings positive effects across many life domains (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007). Happiness has been widely considered as an important concept when discussing well-being and healthy functioning of an individual (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Diener, 2000). It has been demonstrated in scientific literature that individuals who are happy are also more creative, prosocial, altruistic and helpful when compared to unhappy individuals (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007).

Happiness or well-being are hardly ever a direct goal an individual wants to achieve through a coaching process. However, as coaches - while working with their clients - prepare individuals to face professional and personal challenges, they are able to help their clients achieve higher levels of positive emotions (Passmore *et al.,* 2013). One of the approaches used to enhance happiness and well-being is focused around building realistic expectations towards what happiness or well-being mean for a particular individual, and how are they different from - for example - *permanent fulfillment*, as many coaching clients may imagine well-being (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007).

Two essential variables associated with positive emotions can be used by coaching practitioners: goals and social relationships (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007). Coaches have been known for being able to help their clients create meaningful and attainable goals. Strong social relationships are paramount to well-being, and one of its dimensions (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). The objective of many coaching sessions is therefore to create a way for the clients to strengthen their relationship with others at work, at home, or in their community and improve their *daily life*.

The objectives of coaching are to enhance human functioning (professional and personal), help the clients live good lives, and improve well-being. That is why the notion of *daily life* is of such importance for the coaching process. It is through daily life that the coaching clients are able to identify their own strengths, their well-being and their engagement (Passmore

et al., 2013).

Another concept that is used by coaches in the coaching process in order to enhance one's subjective experience, engagement and well-being, is the concept of *flow*. Scientific literature has shown that *flow* is related with being fully immersed in life and fully engaged in all daily activities - both work and leisure (Freire, 2011). Flow is an important concept that has a positive impact on the quality of experience. Individuals experience increased levels of intrinsic motivation, decreased level of self-consciousness, and higher level of control over the activity (Csikszentmihalyi, Abuhamedh, & Nakamura, 2005).

The concept of flow has been used in coaching practices, as the practitioners recognize its impact on the positive quality of the experience, high performance states and increased levels of psychological and subjective well-being (Kauffman, 2006; Wesson, 2010; Wesson & Boniwell, 2007). Following learnings from positive psychology, the underlying processes of flow have been investigated in coaching as well in order to develop methods that would help individuals evoke positive subjective experiences more often in their professional and personal functioning.

Positive psychology offers two backbones to coaching: one theoretical and the other scientific and evidence-based. According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), the new focus of positive psychology "*is on enhancing resources, strengths and competencies, and building positive qualities rather than resolving problems, eliminating weaknesses, or only repairing the worst things in life*". The authors state that coaching is focused on the strengths and growth, on positivity and optimism.

Passmore *et al.* (2013) indicates that coaching is not yet strongly developed as a scientific field. This seems to be confirmed by the Global Coaching Study published by ICF in 2016. According to this study, some of the main challenges faced by the industry are: no rigorous regulations for coaching as an approach, the market's confusion about the differences between coaching and other industries such as psychology, mentoring or consulting. That is why positive psychology provides scientific context for coaching researchers. In this approach, the scientific concepts of positive psychology are applied to the coaching field in order to create a well-defined, theoretically grounded body of research. On the other hand, coaching provides an

empirical approach through which positive psychology can be put into action and empirically tested (Peterson, 2006).

In theoretical literature topics such as well-being or happiness used to be regarded as difficult to tackle by the coaching profession (So, 2009). That is where the theoretical contribution of positive psychology plays an important role and the context it provides about positivity, optimism, positive emotions, relationships, and meaning. Evidence-based research on the other hand, backed up the theory with data. Overall then, positive psychology gives coaching the theoretical and evidence-based foundation to build on.

1.3 Young adults at an early stage of their career

Coaching can be offered to people at all stages of their personal and professional development. Youth coaching is becoming increasingly popular as a branch of coaching. The professional marketplace Bidvine has experienced a 280% year-on-year increase in demand on coaching services - 54% of these bookings were made by teenagers and young adults, aged 18 to 22 (Kalia, 2019). According to the ICF, 35% of respondents from Generation Z (born after 1995), already had a coach when answering the Global Consumer Awareness Survey in 2017 (ICF, 2017).

Pressure to fit in, high expectations teenagers have towards themselves, growing up or planning a successful future can all make it very difficult to cope. Youth coaching has been found helpful in encouraging young people's personal development, providing an outlet for stress, helping with loneliness built up by social media or actively pursuing a career (Green *et al.*, 2007). According to Campbell and Gardner (2005), coaching can help build resilience and hope in teenagers as early as 12 years of age. Their study showed that coaching can help with students' personal and academic performance and increase the ability to cope with everyday stresses. The results in the study by Green *et al.* (2007) indicated that coaching can successfully build cognitive hardiness and hope of 15-18 years olds and also significantly decrease the levels of experienced depression amongst them.

Out of all age-groups, however, adults at an early stage of their career (24-35 years) face the most unique set of circumstances and challenges in regards to emotional intelligence, cognitive development, well-being or social adjustments - as the maximum events need to be handled on professional, personal and social front at the same time (Sharma, 2017). There are multiple theories describing what is happening in human development within this age period. Levinson (1986) suggested that around 28-30 is where the first phase of the so called *early adulthood* ends. "*At about 28 the provisional character of the twenties is ending and life is becoming more serious... the* age-thirty crisis" (Levinson, 1986). The *age-thirty crisis* occurs roughly between age 28 and 32. According to Sheehy (1996) during that time "*it is not uncommon, at the approach to the thirties, to tear up the life structure one put together to support the original dream of the twenties*." This is also a time when humans create a foundation for the structure of their next stage of life (Levinson, 1986). Levinson also related to that period of time in human development as the "age thirty transition", which - according to him - young people experience "*a threat to life itself, the danger of chaos and dissolution, the loss of hope for the future*".

As opposed to early adulthood, especially between 25-35 years old, the middle to late 30s bring resolutions across many areas of human functioning and are often described as "the establishment phase" (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1980). It is when humans make major investments - at work, within their family, with their friends, community, or society. After the upheaval of the late 20s and early 30s, individuals make informed financial, social and emotional investments, decide to start a family, they typically have enough professional experience to get promoted or to gain raises (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1980).

Cognition reaches its peak when an individual is around 35 years old, so it stabilizes in the proceeding years. Formal operational thinking is established during early adolescence and develops through adulthood. Operational thinking allows individuals to think in abstract ways, create hypothetical scenarios, and use deductive or inductive reasoning to explain complex concepts (McLeod, 2018). Early adulthood is when individuals develop relativistic thinking - the type of thinking surpassing the simplistic notion of *"right vs. wrong"* (Basseches, 1984).

Individuals realize that many questions may have multiple right as well as multiple wrong answers, they learn how to look at every idea from various angles (Commons, *et al.*, 2008). They start using logic and utilize pragmatic thinking in solving real-world problems and dilemmas.

As adults focus on progressing in their (academic, professional or other) career, their problem-solving skills improve and they become more creative while looking for new solutions to apply (Sinnott, 1998). Developmental theorists have also suggested the existence of another cognitive stage - *postformal operational thinking*. It is when during the decision making process, logic is integrated with emotion and adults are able to create principles that govern their choices (Commons, *et al.*, 2008; Sinnott, 1998). Such thinking allows adults to handle situations that are emotionally complex, but can be successfully approached with the application of logic, understanding the context, situations and circumstances (Basseches, 1984; Sinnott, 1998).

The period between 25-35 years of age is also challenging for young adults due to a *quarter-life crisis* (Barr, 2004). The crisis occurs due to multiple challenges related to living a new, independent life or feeling overwhelmed with demands and responsibilities that a young person faces. During this stage of life young adults are particularly vulnerable to feelings of worry or stress - they worry about the future, they worry whether the choices they have made are the right ones, they often wonder if life holds more for them or whether they have lost their opportunities (Barr, 2004). Choices related to graduation, finding a new job, work demands or birth of a child all can fuel feelings of worry.

Individuals in early adulthood find meaning of life either through work (Sterns & Huyck, 2001) or through family and friends (Markus *et al.*, 2004). According to scientific studies, individual work satisfaction is higher when a role involves working with other people, allows for individual growth and career advancement, and also independence (Mohr & Zoghi, 2006). Higher well-being is achieved with better relationships with significant others, friends, co-workers or family or community members (Ryff & Singer, 2009). It is of no surprise that in young adulthood individuals are more preoccupied with their pursuit to form meaningful relationships.

In the study by Gondlekar and Kamat (2016), the authors characterized the age group of 25-35 year olds by their professional work preferences. The study showed that employees differ depending on their age with respect to perceived rewards system, motivational level, responsibility, and identity problems. For example - youngest employees (age group 25-35) have been found more satisfied with the reward system at work than older employees. What may play a role, though, in such a perception of the reward system are the expectations of different age groups - youngest employees may have lower expectations due to lower experience and knowledge levels (Gondlekar & Kamat, 2016). Youngest employees (age group 25-35) were least happy with the level of responsibility in the organization.

The study also revealed a positive correlation between motivational level and age - the youngest employee group were least satisfied with motivational activities introduced by the company. This was most likely related to the fact that younger employees may still be on probation, or still not fully convinced that they see themselves at that particular company in the future, as change is a significant factor in their daily lives (Gondlekar & Kamat, 2016). Organizational identification has been highest for youngest employees (25-35 years old) implying that younger employees are happier at work if they can identify themselves with the company they're working for. This may be explained by the fact that they are trying to gain as much expertise as possible in specialised skills and appreciate being able to learn from their peers.

There is a positive link between psychological well-being and the career level of employees. The levels of well-being of more senior employees tend to be higher compared to young adults at an early stage of their career (Gondlekar & Kamat, 2016). More junior employees are less self-determining and independent, they tend to have a lower sense of competence in managing their immediate environment. It is senior employees who enjoy continued learning, sense of direction, meaningful goals and have satisfying and trusting relationships with others. More junior employees still need to face challenging situations, learn how to make decisions independently, and learn how to form positive relations with their co-workers (Gondlekar & Kamat, 2016).

CHAPTER 2. Coaching: an overview

This chapter gives an overview of coaching: introduces the coaching industry, provides many definitions of coaching available in evidence-based literature, characterizes coaching clients, and the role of coaches in the coaching process, suggests which factors are needed to build a successful coaching relationship as well as an efficient coaching process. The chapter ends with a list of benefits that coaching clients experience as a result of the coaching process.

2.1 Coaching: an industry

Coaching is a relatively new industry which fully emerged in the 1990s (Williams, 2003). According to a Global Coaching Study (ICF, 2016), there are 17,500 coaches in North America and over 50,000 coaches in the world. In North America, the industry generates annual revenue of $955 million and nearly $2.4 billion globally (ICF, 2016).

As opposed to traditional helping professions - there are no rigorous credential requirements for coaching - unlike psychology or counseling, which are subject to scrutinous regulations (Williams & Davis, 2007). This has been recognized as one of the main obstacles of the coaching industry - the main concern for the majority of coach practitioners was "untrained individuals who call themselves coaches" (ICF, 2016). Another obstacle mentioned was the so called "market confusion" - it is a confusion about the actual differences between coaching and other helping approaches such as mentoring or consulting (ICF, 2016). The same survey recognized increased awareness of the benefits of coaching as the greatest opportunity for the industry.

Coaching is a behavioral change approach that motivates people, helps them set better goals and improves well-being (Grant & O'Hara, 2006; Green *et al.*, 2006; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010). The industry has separated itself from therapeutic approaches – a coach is equivalent with a role of a "thought partner" rather than an expert, like in traditional therapeutic approaches (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011). A coach does not give advice, operating from an assumption that the clients are healthy and capable of creating their own solutions (ICF, 2019a). Contrary to

traditional therapeutic approaches, a client does not need to be "fixed". Coaches also focus on successful future outcomes rather than analyzing past issues (ICF, 2019b). There is continuously growing (although still scarce) scientific evidence, that coaching is an efficient and valid approach (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2009; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011).

2.2 Definition of coaching

Although rapidly growing and continuously growing as an industry, coaching remains quite challenging to define and many sources define it differently (Williams & Davis, 2007). There are multiple approaches within the coaching industry and each of them may utilize a slightly different context for coaching itself. Grant (2003, p.254) provides the following definition of coaching:

> *Coaching can be broadly defined as a collaborative solution-focused, result-orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of life experience and goal attainment in the personal and/or professional life of normal, nonclinical clients.*

According to Hudson (1999, p.6) a coach is:

> [a] *person who facilitates experiential learning that results in future-oriented abilities. [A coach] refers to a person who is a trusted role model, adviser, wise person, friend, mensch, steward, or guide – a person who works with emerging human and organizational forces to tap new energy and purpose, to shape new vision and plans, and to generate desired results. A coach is someone trained in and devoted to guiding others into increased competence, commitment, and confidence.*

Stober (2005) defines coaching as "*a collaborative process of facilitating a client's [coachee's] ability to self-direct learning and growth, as evidenced by sustained changes in self-understanding, self-concept, and behavior*". ICF (2019b) describes coaching as "partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential."

Currently multiple definitions of coaching are available – each definition provides a different context for the coaching process, outcomes, work with the client and the coaching relationship (Ellis, 1998; Grant, 2003; Hargrove, 2008; Hudson, 1999; ICF, 2019b; Kimsey-House *et al,*, 2011; Silsbee, 2010; Whitworth, Kimsey-House, Kimsey-House, & Sandahl, 2007; Williams & Davis, 2007). The following section characterizes and categorizes the most common elements from various coaching models to give the best overview of the most "mainstream" definition and characterization of coaching.

Definitions of coaching contain different components. The essence of the coaching approach can be captured by the following phrases, terms or descriptions that are most often used in those definitions.

1. Professional coaching is referred to as a *partnership* (ICF, 2019b), or a *relationship* (Kimsey-House *et al.,* 2011; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007; Williams & Davis, 2007) between the coach and the coachee.
2. The coaching process is most commonly described as a process of effectively empowering people (Hargrove, 2008; Whitworth et al., 2007), a creative process (ICF, 2019b), collaborative, solution-focused, results-oriented systematic process (Grant, 2003).
3. The coach is referred to as inspiring, encouraging, supporting and enabling clients (Hargrove, 2008; Whitworth et al., 2007), giving support, accountability and unconditional positive regard (Hudson, 1999),
4. The coaching process allows clients to maximize their potential (Ellis, 1998; ICF, 2019b; Whitmore, 2004), as an outcome of the coaching process, their competence, confidence and commitment increase (Hudson, 1999), clients make important changes in their lives (Kimsey-House et al., 2011; Whitworth et al., 2007), and develop effectiveness (Silsbee, 2010).
5. Coaching clients identify new energy, purpose and what they want in life (Ellis, 1998; Hudson, 1999; Whitworth et al., 2007).

6. Coaching is described as a future-oriented process focused on applying future-oriented abilities (Hargrove, 2008; Hudson, 1999); coaching supports clients in designing their future (Williams & Davis, 2007).
7. The coaching process has also been referred to as a process that helps coachees learn (Whitmore, 2004), a process that fosters experiential learning (Hudson, 1999), and self-directed learning (Green et al., 2007).
8. The time frame in which the coaching process takes place has been indicated to be a long-term relationship (Silsbee, 2010; Williams & Davis, 2007), where long-term development of the coachee occurs.
9. The coaching approach is designed for normal ("*non-clinical*") populations (Green *et al.*, 2007).
10. During the coaching process, clients are generating their own, new ideas and answers (Ellis, 1998, Williams & Davis, 2007).

Coaching is an efficient process. It allows the client and the coach to reach the highest output to input ratio, where output is measured in terms of the coachee's performance and output is measured in terms of time and resources needed to reach it. Many definitions of coaching suggest that the clients maximize their output when the following happens: (1) clients have clearly identified their goals, and (2) clients are provided with the right tools, resources and support system (Green *et al.*, 2007; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). This allows coachees to maximize their potential - which means that they are able to achieve the most given the existing constraints - more than when they are left to their own devices without the coaching relationship. The coaching process encourages coachees to experiment and to use their creativity, which consequently leads to better solutions and outcomes in many areas of coachee's professional and personal development.

Coachees come up with their own answers, which has an important consequence in terms of internal motivation and commitment. Strategies that are initiated by internal motivation have been shown to be more successful and sustainable in the long run (Schneider *et al.*, 2011). Coaching is a long-term process - a "quick" substantial change is rarely observed, as a significant

shift in coachee's behavior most often requires time (Williams & Davis, 2007). In the coaching process, time is needed to create a professional, open and trusting coaching relationship. Also, time is needed to notice observable and tangible coaching results (ICF, 2019a).

The assumption that coaches work with non-clinical populations is one of many aspects that differentiates coaching from traditional psychological approaches. Coachees are not perceived as "clinical", or "broken" and therefore do not need to be "treated" or "fixed". It is assumed that any coachee coming from a non-clinical population is capable of solving his or her problems in an efficient and constructive way (Green *et al.,* 2007). Coaching as an approach also does not target or aims at treating mental health related issues.

Modern coaching also incorporates techniques and strategies used in career development, job training, mentoring, and human resources management. Mentoring is a well-established and recognized tool for employee development, used not only to help employees grow their skills and build their human capital, but also - indirectly - to help companies grow and increase their profits (Brock, 2014). Some of the examples of techniques or various elements used in mentoring are: developmental guidance, counseling, peer support, or career advice. According to Whitmore (1992): "*whether we label it coaching, advising, counseling, or mentoring, if done well, the underlying principles and methodology remain the same*". There are two main differences though between mentoring and coaching. Firstly, coaching does not include advising or counseling. A few of the many reasons why mentors are hired are: their expertise, to provide clients with guidance and because they have experience and knowledge in certain areas. Secondly, unlike in mentoring, the coaching clients are assumed to be perfectly capable of generating their own solutions (Brock, 2014).

There are many areas that can be distinguished within coaching - life coaching, executive coaching, youth coaching, relationship coaching, emotional intelligence coaching or career coaching are just a few examples. One of such areas is *educational coaching* - coaching teachers. It is a reliable and established professional coaching practice in order to help teachers develop their professional skills (Wood *et al.*, 2016). Just like coaching in any other area, educational coaching helps with professional development through *continuous feedback and support* loop.

Such feedback and support may take the form of real time classroom observations, for example, and a feedback session based on these observations, where improvement suggestions are being shared (Wesley & Buysse, 2006).

2.3 Characteristics of the coaching clients

The coaching clients have been assigned various characteristics and assumptions in the literature. These assumptions ensure that the coaching relationship that is formed between the coach and the coachee as well as the coaching process are efficient and successful.

1. Coachees are creative, resourceful and whole

Coaching is a humanistic and client-centered approach which perceives coachees as creative, full of potential, and resourceful (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010). "Full of potential" and "resourceful" indicates that the coachees already have both the skills and required resources to achieve their desired goals, and if not, they're able to develop the necessary skill (Nixon-Witt, 2008; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). The coaching approach is focused on a coachee as a whole person, not fragmented into disjoint parts (Williams & Davis, 2007). Describing the coachee as "whole" implies that the coachee does not need to be fixed and also, that coachees do not need advice, as they are fully capable of generating the solutions and next steps themselves (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). All coachees are perceived as experts in coaching methodology (Irwin & Morrow, 2005; Pearson *et al.*, 2013; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007; Zandvoort *et al.*, 2009). This belief indicating that the coachees have all the answers and solutions to any problem they are facing is the foundation of a successful coaching relationship (Ellis, 1998; Newnham-Kanas *et al.* 2010).

2. Coachees come from non-clinical populations

The coaching approach has been found efficient when applied to normal populations, i.e. when the coachee comes from a non-clinical group (Grant, 2003; Grant, 2006; Ladegård, 2011). Meeting this requirement allows coachees to fully comprehend what it means and what it takes to "maximizing potential" as well as to be able to follow through.

According to Williams and Davis (2007) coaching clients need to be capable of making

conscious choices, know what they want and be able to share with the coach what they want. In order for the coaching process to be successful, coachees need to have a healthy personality and space for growth in all important functional areas of their lives (psychological, social, professional, etc). Healthy personality helps coachees establish a clear sense of identity, define their purpose, set realistic goals and stay motivated while achieving them (Owler, 2012). They can be held accountable for their commitments as they follow their designed action plan (Newnham-Kanas *et al.,* 2011). As a consequence, coachees have more control over their part in the coaching relationship, the process and their own agenda (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011; Pearson *et al.*, 2013; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007).

Coachees coming from non-clinical populations want to achieve more and expand their human potential (Williams & Davis, 2007). They understand in-depth what is optimal well-being, are able to make and follow healthy choices that increases the quality of their lives (Francis & Milner, 2006).

2.4 Required coaching skills

In order to engage in a supportive coaching relationship and create a successful coaching process, coaches need to possess the right skills and abilities to be able to work with their coachees. Coaches may use numerous coaching strategies, techniques and models in order to support their clients as they work towards achieving their goals (Zandvoort *et al.*, 2009).

1. Active listening

Rogers and Farson (1957) noticed that active listening is a very powerful skill that helps coachees create a personality shift. Active listening allows coachees to look at themselves from a more positive perspective and with a more open attitude. The shift towards more positivity and openness allows coachees to accept new experiences and welcome new challenges, be less defensive when discussing behavioral change or a particular personality shift (Rogers & Farson, 1957). Active listening requires curiosity (Rogers & Farson, 1957), staying tuned in to the coachee's emotions, being aware of their body language and knowing their environment (Irwin

& Morrow, 2005; Newnham-Kanas et al., 2010) as well as listening to not only what the coachee is saying, but also what the coachee is leaving out on purpose (Schneider *et al*., 2011).

Active listening requires coaches to be familiar with multiple strategies - clarifying, reflecting, mirroring, deepening understanding by making sure the coach and the client always stay on the same page (Williams & Davis, 2007). It is paramount for the coach to be able to fully listen to the clients' perspective - this helps the clients hear their own thoughts, become aware of their own feelings and consequently be able to evaluate the situation from a more objective perspective (Rogers & Farson, 1957).

2. Unconditional positive regard

Rogers (1961) pointed out that powerful connections - which constitute a foundation of a coaching relationship - require unconditional positive regard. Unconditional positive regard and the associated unconditional acceptance create a non-judgmental environment where clients can fully express themselves, voice their concerns and face their current challenges (Rogers, 1967). Unconditional positive regard allows coaches to enter any coaching situation without making assumptions or judgments which for the coachees implies that their needs, beliefs, wishes, and goals are respected (Schneider *et al.*, 2011). Receiving such support and being offered unconditional acceptance allows coachees to stay open and fully accept themselves (Brady, 2011).

3. Challenge, empowerment, acknowledgement and accountability

Coaches possess the ability to challenge and empower the coachee, acknowledge their progress, their wins and hold them accountable for their commitments (Irwin & Morrow, 2005; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2008; Pearson *et al.*, 2013). By challenging their clients, coaches make sure that the clients are setting the right goals - ambitious, yet attainable. This way, the coaching process helps clients extend themselves and achieve higher goals, reach higher standards than if they were to set and achieve them on their own.

Here is where empowerment plays an important role. Empowerment helps coachees progress and learn. In order to facilitate that, coaches ask powerful questions, bring new

perspectives to the conversation, discuss new opportunities, alternatives and choices (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2008; Nixon-Witt, 2008; Schneider *et al.*, 2011). While doing so, the coach does not give advice, but rather resorts to bringing awareness of what is available for coachees and empowers them to reach out for it (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). Through acknowledgment of coachee's achievements, the coach expresses that everything that the coachee has been working on and progressing towards is being seen and recognized. And finally, through holding clients accountable, the coach helps them stay focused on the goals they set, their progress and helps them respect their commitments.

2.5 Building a Successful Coaching Relationship

Scientific literature on coaching suggests six components that are fundamental for a successful coaching relationship: focus on the coachee's strengths, safe and open environment, designing the relationship together, client-centered approach, change is part of the relationship.

1. Coachee's strengths are the main focus

Building on the contribution of positive psychology, the focus of coaching is on the coachee's strengths. Coaching promotes and brings up what is best in people (Martin *et al.,* 2012). According to Williams (2003), when individuals focus on their strengths and their available choices, they feel more empowered and their quality of life improves. Such outcome has not been observed in individuals who primarily focus on what can go wrong and the outcomes that are impossible to achieve.

2. Safe and open environment

Empirical, evidence-based and theoretical literature shows that coachees thrive when the coaching environment is safe and open (Kimsey-House et al., 2011; Whitworth et al., 2007). Williams and Davis (2007) define a safe coaching environment as such where coachees always feel that they can openly share their thoughts, tell the truth and be honest. As Whitworth et al. (2007) suggest, such an environment fosters growth as the coachees feel more supported and are

willing to take more risks while working towards their desired goals. Important building blocks for the coaching relationship are: empathy, authenticity and respect (Newnham-Kanas et al., 2010).

Coaching places a huge emphasis on the concept of "*true self*" (Passmore, 2013). It promotes authenticity, and fosters self-consciousness as well as self-awareness of one's own impact. Coaches work therefore with coachees to shift from false self to true self by enhancing emotional intelligence skills, self-awareness and self-consciousness through the coaching relationship they create with their clients. A safe and open coaching relationship which emphasizes authenticity also promotes curiosity, creativity and internal motivation of the coachees (Newnham-Kanas et al., 2010).

3. Partnership in designing the relationship

Both the coach and the coachee partner up and take joint responsibility for designing the coaching relationship (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010). Their roles have different objectives in co-creating such partnership, however, their contribution to the relationship is equally important (Whitworth *et al.,* 2007). When such partnership is formed, the coaching relationship has the potential to empower coachees on their way to reaching their goals (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011).

4. Client-centered approach

The coaching relationship is client-centered (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011; Pearson *et al.*, 2013). Every client presents with a very unique set of beliefs, values, needs, goals, habits, strengths and weaknesses and therefore in every coaching relationship, the coaching approach is uniquely tailored to the client (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). The agenda comes from the client - it is the client who knows their circumstances best. When the approach is internal for the client, and not externally suggested by the coach, the internal motivation of the coachee is higher, the clients feel more empowered to pursue their goals and change their behavior (Schneider *et al.*, 2011). In a client-centered approach, the coachees create their agendas, bring the topics they want to discuss to the coaching session and design their own goals (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011; Schneider *et al.*, 2011).

5. Change is part of the relationship

For the coachee, their situation, circumstances, and their priorities may change overnight. The coaching relationship also needs to remain dynamic to accomodate for all the changes occuring in coachee's personal and professional life. Change is part of the coaching relationship and part of the coaching process - as coachees learn about themselves, their priorities may shift overnight, the agenda or goals may change from one coaching session to the next, or even within the same coaching session (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). Coachees discover new aspects of themselves and continuously learn and develop - people are inquisitive by nature (Coach U, 2005). A goal established yesterday may no longer be the goal for today and therefore the coaching relationship needs to naturally and flexibly follow such changes in order to create sustainable growth for the coachee (Coach U, 2005).

2.6 Characteristics of the Coaching Process

Having discussed the coach, the coachee and the coaching relationship it is important to characterize the coaching process as well. A successful coaching process is the one that efficiently helps the coachee reach their goals that are fully aligned with coachee's values and vision (Coach U, 2005). Such a coaching process allows the coachees to create optimal solutions for their problems and efficiently move towards them, while creating new outcomes and possibilities (Ellis, 1998).

1. The coaching process is goal-oriented and has an objective

Every coaching process has an objective, however, depending on the coachee, the objectives will vary from one individual to another (Lawton-Smith & Cox, 2007). For example, Newnham-Kanas *et al.* (2010) and Kimsey-House *et al.*, (2011) state that the general objectives of the coaching process is to maximize the coachee's potential and facilitate the change. Another example could be to improve performance - both in personal and professional areas (Whitmore, 2004; Stewart *et al.*, 2008).

During the coaching process, every coachee will set their goals, identify blocks, create an

action plan, identify their support system and resources, and finally take action and evaluate the outcomes in order to make a decision about what to change and how to proceed (Schneider *et al.*, 2011). According to Grant (2003) changes are applied in order to efficiently reach the goals. The importance of goal setting has been emphasized in the literature - it has been shown that individuals, while setting their goals, feel empowered and are able to apply a sustainable behavior change in order to reach their objectives (Locke & Latham, 1990; Pearson *et al.*, 2013). Meaningful goals have also been shown to be positively correlated with well-being (Green *et al.*, 2006).

2. The coaching process is client-centered

Just as the coaching relationship was introduced as *client-centered*, so is the coaching process. As such, an efficient coaching process will incorporate what is important to clients, their values, priorities, needs and goals (Irwin & Morrow, 2005). Grant (2003) suggested that the coaching process is explicitly focused on the following areas of humanistic experience: behavioral, cognitive, emotional and environmental. As a holistic process, it will encourage coachees to work on all aspects of their personality, work and life in order to strengthen them. Some of the example areas can be: health, family, career, finance, community, social area, transitions, life balance, spiritual area, or general well-being (Coach U, 2005; Francis & Milner, 2006; Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011; Williams & Davis, 2007). The dynamic and flexible nature of the coaching process allows the coach to always stay focused on clients and what is important for them - the learning, their goals, or their growth (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010; Pearson *et al.*, 2013; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007).

3. The coaching process is future- and solution-oriented

It has been brought up in scientific, evidence-based research that the concept of time affects how individuals perceive their reality, their experiences and how they rate the quality of their actions and outcomes (Boniwell, 2005; Boniwell *et al*., 2010; Boniwell *et al*., 2014). An attitude towards individual perceptions, experiences and actions will differ depending on whether the individual is oriented towards the past, the present or the future which will consequently lead to different outcomes. A coaching process is based in the present as the coachees increase

awareness of their everyday perception, experience and behaviors (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2010). Simultaneously, coachees set their goals in the future, which clearly defines their future actions and strategies to consciously and purposefully progress towards achieving these goals (Williams & Davis, 2007).

With the focus on the future and goal achievement, the coaching process is solution-oriented (Grant, 2003). It places the emphasis on the coachee's strengths, challenges negative, action-blocking thoughts and reiterates the importance of future results and designed solutions (Grant, 2003).

2.7 Benefits of coaching

In the scientific, evidence-based literature, coaching has been shown to benefit coachees in many areas of their personal and professional lives. Coachees build better relationships, have better physical and mental health, and they achieve better professional outcomes (Ellis, 1998; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006; Wood et al., 2008). Coaching positively influences self-awareness and self-discovery - coachees have a clearer understanding of who they are, their values, strengths and weaknesses (ICF, 1998). There is also growing evidence that coaching can lead to: better goal setting and better goal attainment, more efficient self-regulation, and efficient problem solving (Ellis, 1998; Grant, 2003; Green *et al.*, 2006; ICF, 1998).

According to Martin *et al.* (2012), if a certain character trait is perceived as *problematic*, it can be identified and permanently changed as an outcome of the coaching process. Coaching may result in behavioral and personality change (Lisspers *et al.*, 1999). Coachees can give up a bad habit, decide to transition to another path (retire, for example), or change their career (ICF, 1998). As an outcome of the coaching process, coachees have more self-confidence, self-acceptance, psychological courage and self-determination (Curtis & Kelly, 2013; ICF, 1998; Zandvoort *et al.*, 2009).

A number of evidence-based studies present results indicating that coaching is beneficial for strengthening courage, resilience, and enhancing hope, well-being and quality of life (Frisch, 2013; Green *et al.*, 2006; Leach *et al*., 2011). It may also positively impact mental health by

decreasing depression, stress and anxiety (Curtis & Kelly, 2013; Grant, 2003; Green et al, 2007; ICF, 1998; Spence & Grant, 2007). Coachees often decide to live a healthier lifestyle, they notice higher energy and fitness levels as well as overall wellness levels (ICF, 1998; Zandvoort *et al.*, 2009). Coaching has also been reported to result in increased income levels, to allow coachees to have more fun, enjoy deeper appreciation of life, have more free time and function better in their relationships including families (Ellis, 1998; Green *et al.*, 2006; ICF, 1998).

Evidence-based studies show that coaching has a significant impact on work-related outcomes. It positively affects individual productivity at work, improves confidence and motivation, inspires individuals to make permanent, sustainable behavioral changes and it improves leadership skills (Grant, 2009; Neale *et al*., 2009). Specific examples of benefits that have been mentioned by the organizations include the following: higher productivity, better performance, more motivated staff, better relationships with co-workers and direct reports, higher flexibility and adaptability to change, higher employee retention rates, continuous development and growth of employees, focus on learning and development, better communication, and better career development (Neale *et al*., 2009).

CHAPTER 3. The concept of Emotional Intelligence

This chapter gives an overview of emotional intelligence: introduces the historical background of emotions, provides many approaches to emotional intelligence available in the literature, and shares suggestions on how to develop emotional intelligence. The chapter also provides clarification of links between emotional intelligence and coaching and emotional intelligence and education. At the end the chapter highlights the importance of emotional intelligence in professional and personal functioning of adults at an early stage of their career.

3.1 Emotions - historical background

Until recently, the importance of emotions have been largely underestimated and emotions themselves perceived more as irrelevant, selfish, or even as luxuries (Passmore *et al.,* 2013). On the other hand, recent scientific research has demonstrated that individuals benefit from having high levels of well-being and flourishing (Carr, 2011; Diener, 2009; Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008; Hefferon and Boniwell, 2011). Through such outcomes, emotions have become a sound and valid research field (Cohn and Fredrickson, 2009).

So what are emotions? Emotions can be defined as a "*psychological state defined by subjective feelings but also characteristic patterns of physiological arousal thought and behaviors*" (Peterson, 2006). There is a difference between emotions and mood though - emotions are typically tied to certain events in time, whether in the past, present or in the future (Hefferon and Bonwell, 2011). However, moods last longer and are typically not tied to any specific event. Emotions affect individuals in many different ways and the experienced level, direction (positive or negative) and intensity varies largely from one individual to another (Peterson, 2006; Larsen & Diener, 1992; Shiota *et al*., 2006). Emotions, according to Fredrickson (2001) are "*multicomponent response tendencies that unfold over relatively short time spans. Typically, an emotion begins with an individual's assessment of the personal meaning of some antecedent event*." The evaluation process may happen consciously or

unconsciously, and is related to: facial expression, subjective experience, cognitive processing, or physiological changes (Fredrickson, 2001).

Humans are emotionally very complex and according to Eckman (2003) experiencing a mixture of common emotions (interest, surprise, joy, shame, guilt, fear, distress, anger, disgust, and contempt). Initially, research in the field of emotions focused mostly on the negative ones (like fear or anger) as it seemed to have an evolutionary justification - it is the negative emotions which kept humans safe. However, a counter argument put forward by positive psychologists for example is that any emotions, thoughts or behaviors must somehow helped humans survive, if they exist till this day. Although it may indeed be more immediate to see the reason for *fear* (it gives a signal to run), as it promotes survival, rather than *gratitude*, where such mechanism is not that obvious (Fredrickson, 2009).

There are ten positive emotions that all humans experience - joy, serenity, gratitude, hope, interest, awe, pride, inspiration, amusement, and love (Fredrickson, 2009). Research in the field of positive psychology has suggested a 3:1 ratio of positive to negative emotions (or interactions) experienced by individuals. This is called a 3:1 positivity ratio. As a mathematician, Losada (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005) discovered that for an optimal daily functioning, an individual needs a ratio of 3 positive emotions or interactions (for example asking about what opinions other people have or how they feel) to counteract one negative emotion. What this result indicates is that there is a healthy balance that every individual needs between experienced positive and negative emotions.

Scientific literature suggests that as humans experience positive emotions, their minds "*open up*" and they are able to create solutions or have ideas that are considered "out of the box" (Fredrickson *et al*., 2008). With a broader mind and more robust thinking patterns individuals are able to "zoom out" and get a more objective perspective of a situation, look for opportunities that otherwise would not present themselves or generate alternative possibilities. Positive emotions also enhance creativity and increase the ability to tap into as well as expand individual resources (Fredrickson, 2001; Passmore *et al.*, 2013). According to Fredrickson (2001), these resources can be of various types: physical resources (increased wellness, better coordination or cardiovascular

health), psychological resources (optimism, resilience, positivity, or goal orientation), intellectual resources (problem solving, solution orientation, learning and growth mindset), and social resources (maintaining relationships, engaging and creating new ones).

Positive emotions can also "*undo cardiovascular after-effects of negativity*" (Fredrickson, 2009). Meaning that the experience of negative emotions like stress or anxiety, for example, can be undone by experiencing positive emotions, which helps our physiology return to normal functioning (Fredrickson & Levenson, 1998).

According to the somatic theory by James-Lange, physiological changes that individuals experience force them to - upon noticing - interpret these changes. After noticing and interpreting changes, individuals experience emotions and produce a certain behavior as a reaction (Passer & Smith, 2004). This theory proposes therefore that it is the physiological component that comes first, which signals to the individual that something worth noticing is happening (James, 1879, 1890). After that, come emotions and an adequate behavioral reaction. A practical example of this theory is when an individual cries and the interpretation is that this individual experiences emotion of sadness.

Another theory - *cognitive appraisal theory* - states the exact opposite to the James-Lange theory, namely that a cognitive appraisal of the situation comes first and based on that, an individual experiences positive or negative emotions. It is the cognitive appraisal that results in experiencing emotions. Schacter-Singer suggested a theory falling under cognitive appraisal theory, where individual perception and interpretation of the situation comes first and results in experienced emotions as an outcome of this perception. For example, an act of kindness from someone else experienced by an individual would result in a feeling of happiness (Schacter, 1966).

Facial feedback theory suggests another approach to the notion of emotions - moving facial muscles send a specific signal to the brain already stating whether an individual is experiencing positive or negative emotions (Adelmann & Zajonc, 1989). This theory, however, does not seem to be scientifically sound, as different emotions experienced by the individuals can result in exactly the same physiological responses and therefore the same facial muscles

movement. Feeling sad and feeling happy can both result in an individual crying, although the emotions experienced are drastically different.

Emotions arise therefore not only as a product of certain physiological changes, but there are also other factors responsible (Passer & Smith, 2004). According to Canon-Bard theory of emotions, for example, the sequencing chain is more balanced. The theory suggests that the cognitive interpretation of the situation and physiological changes occur at exactly the same time, resulting in a balanced input for experienced emotions (Passer & Smith, 2004).

3.2 Emotional Intelligence: an overview

Despite the popularity of emotional intelligence (EI) as a concept, the scientific literature is struggling with providing a single, clear definition. At the moment, various definitions are available and all address various ways in which we relate to our own and other people's emotions. Salovey and Mayer (1990) provide the following definition which stems from the notion of *multiple intelligences* introduced by Gardner (1993): emotional intelligence is the "*ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action*".

According to Sparrow and Knight (2006), emotional intelligence is the "*habitual practice of: using emotional information from ourselves and other people; integrating this with our thinking; using these to inform our decision making to help us get what we want from life in general*". According to Mayer and Salovey (1997) EI is "*the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth*." In scientific literature, emotions are approached and defined as signals that notify and alert individuals and help interpret the environment as well as the behavior of people within it (Davidson 2003; Mayer and Salovey, 1993; Mayer et al., 2001, 2004).

Gardner (1993) suggested that emotional intelligence encompasses two aspects: (1) understanding one's own feelings, goals, responses, reactions, behavior, etc.; (2) understanding

the feelings of others. Gardner called these aspects "*intrapersonal intelligence*" and "*interpersonal intelligence*". The first one refers to individuals being able to understand what is happening *within themselves* and the latter refers to individuals being able to understand what is happening *within other* people but also *between other* people, and what needs to be done about everything that is going on.

Emotional intelligence is not a static concept. Neale *et al.* (2009) suggest that all aspects of emotional intelligence one possesses can be altered, developed and improved. They suggest that the premise of emotional intelligence is based on the following five principles:

1. "*EI is not one single thing, but is made up of a mixture of attitudes, feelings and thoughts and the actions that result from them.*"

   According to Neale *et al.* (2009), emotional intelligence cannot be simply mapped onto a number, a score that would measure its level. Unlike Intelligence Quotient (IQ), it is not possible to reflect the complexity of emotional intelligence with a single number. Emotional intelligence encompasses a mix of complex feelings, habits, interrelated attitudes, thoughts, responses, and actions.

2. "*EI predicts performance.*"

   Emotional intelligence has been linked to increased performance (Goleman, 1995). Gallwey (1974) suggested that the correlation can be described by the following equation:

   P = p – i

   Performance = potential - interferences,

   where interferences are understood as - for example - negative attitudes, unhelpful habits or limiting beliefs that can prevent an individual from performing at her best. Developing emotional intelligence requires time, however, when developed, it can lead to desirable behavioral changes, improved self-management and improved relationships with others.

3. "*EI can be measured*"

   There are multiple ways of measuring one's emotional intelligence. What is important, though, is that it is not an intangible, abstract, unmeasurable concept. There are

questionnaires like self-evaluation questionnaires, 360-degree feedback, or various scales and tools allowing to capture multiple aspects of one's emotional intelligence.

4. "*EI can be changed.*"

   Measuring emotional intelligence gives deep insight into various aspects, areas, or dimensions of it and allows an individual to then work on each one of them in order to change and develop. Dramatic changes are rare, scientific evidence suggests that a change in attitude requires 21 days of conscious attitude and behavior changing work (Neale *et al.*, 2009).

5. "*Developing your EI will impact all areas of your life.*"

   Since emotional intelligence encompasses a mix of complex feelings, habits, interrelated attitudes, thoughts, responses, and actions, changing an aspect of emotional intelligence will consequently result in change of the individual. It is not possible that a sustainable change in attitude or a habit will only be reflected in a single situation - such change will show across many domains of one's life.

Neale *et al.* (2009) suggest that in order to develop any aspect of emotional intelligence, an individual needs a quality called *reflective learning*. Reflective learning is a habit of reflecting on past experiences, looking back on them and analyzing how the people involved felt throughout that experience, what thoughts occurred or could have occurred, what happened, what actions were taken and what were the potential motives guiding these actions. One of the most essential aspects of reflective learning is that it should be performed without any judgment - either towards oneself, or towards others involved. The focus should entirely be on constructive outcomes by answering a question: *"What would I change if a similar situation happened in the future?"*. Such reflective learning allows an individual to grow from her experiences and develop various aspects of emotional intelligence.

3.3 Different approaches to Emotional Intelligence

Most theoretical approaches explaining EI can be grouped into three models, depending on what they emphasize: ability, capacities and traits. The ability model (Mayer & Salovey,

1997) highlights the importance of the relationship between cognition and emotion. EI in that model is a measure of: (1) the perception an individual has on their own emotions and (2) the way an individual understands and manages the emotions in their personal growth and improvement of social interactions (Mayer, Salovey, Caruson, & Sitarenios, 2001). Bracket *et al.* (2009) describes the stages of the ability model in the following way:

1. The first stage of the model is "*perceiving*". The capacities needed are to be able to recognize one's own emotions or other people's emotions. Bracket *et al*. refer to it as "*reading faces*" or "*feeling a room*" and suggest that understanding people comes from the ability to recognize the correct emotions experienced by the individuals.

2. The second branch of the model is "*using*", which is related to how individuals manipulate their own emotions in order to create a desired mood. According to scientific literature, depending on the mood, individuals are able to perform certain tasks better, and certain tasks worse. High levels of arousal might be helpful and necessary for musicians when they want to be creative, and not so desired for surgeons, who need to tone down emotions for tasks requiring high levels of precision.

3. The third mental skill is "*understanding*", which is the ability to understand the complexity of emotions and the fact that emotions can show up as blends of multiple different emotions.

4. The last ability is "*managing*" emotions which is about self-regulating one's own emotions. In coaching - for example - this is one of the most fundamental skills required for a successful coaching process. It is paramount that the coach is able to manage her emotions in a coaching session - otherwise trust or intimacy may be jeopardized.

Emotional intelligence can be perceived as a measure of individual capacity for self-awareness, social-awareness and social skills - i.e. set of abilities, skills and competencies, which as such can be learned, trained and developed (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

The trait model has been proposed by Bar-On (1997). In that model, emotions are perceived as helpful in improving well-being and EI is measured in a similar way as IQ with a measure called emotional quotient (EQ). EI consists of emotional and social skills and competencies that together determine: (1) to what extent are we able to understand and express ourselves, (2) to what extent are we able to understand and relate to others, (3) how well are we able to cope with challenges and pressure (Bar-On, 1988). Emotional competencies listed by Bar-On include the following: self-awareness, self-regulation, social-emotional awareness, and regulating emotions in others. Other theories also divide emotional intelligence into separate measurable components. Petrides and Furnham (2003), for example, list 15 components which can be grouped into 4 independent categories: well-being, self-control skills, emotional and social skills.

According to the outcomes obtained in the scientific literature, Emotional Intelligence is correlated to many individual, psychological and social variables: self-esteem, well-being, enhanced positive mood, more prosocial behaviors, less violent behavior, less smoking and alcohol-use, greater academic achievements, and higher leadership skills (Brackett *et al*., 2009; Salovey *et al.*, 2002).

Scientific literature does not provide one definition of what emotional intelligence is, what features, factors, traits, skills, abilities or capacities do or do not form EI. The majority of theories, though, incorporate emotional and emotional regulation (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013) as sub-measures or categories helping define emotional intelligence as a concept. There is a growing body of emotional intelligence related literature and training, which inspires many theories to be created around what emotional intelligence is.

Emotional intelligence is not a synonym for *personality*. Neale *et al.* (2009) suggest that personality is relatively fixed across time and life domains, while all of the aspects of emotional intelligence can be altered. There is a relationship between *personality* and *emotional intelligence* which can be best reflected by the statement that emotional intelligence helps individuals make choices about how to *manage* the personalities that they possess.

Emotional intelligence has also been linked to motivation (Neale *et al.*, 2009). Individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence have an in-depth understanding of themselves, their positive and negative feelings as well as which of these feelings are triggered by which event and how. Positive emotions have been connected to individual needs, desires, attitudes, beliefs, values, and preferences. It may therefore happen that what is a motivator for one individual evoking positive emotions, may not be a motivator for another person and will trigger negative emotions. Individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence will understand the motivational mechanism in depth and will be able to act accordingly.

Some of the above quoted theories suggest that the concept of emotional intelligence is *competencies*-based. And as a set of a finite number of competencies, emotional intelligence can be improved simply through training - an individual may choose to develop one of the competencies which would result in improved emotional intelligence. However, if emotional intelligence is perceived as a mix of attitudes, habits, thoughts and actions, these will also have an impact on competencies (Neale *et al.*, 2009). Approaching change only through training of a chosen competency would therefore be too simplistic to lead to a sustainable, permanent behavioral change and improvement in emotional intelligence.

3.4 Developing Emotional Intelligence

Developing emotional intelligence has been an interesting research topic for many fields of humanistic sciences. Scientific literature suggests that emotional intelligence can be developed (Schutte *et al.*, 2013). There are already some interventions developed with preliminary evidence suggesting that these interventions can positively affect emotional intelligence and help individuals improve academic achievements, functioning at work or at home, mental and physical health, increase life satisfaction, and largely enhance personal relationships (Schutte *et al.*, 2013). Emotional intelligence as a construct has been useful and of interest to many different fields of study - psychology, education, business, sports science etc. - which all have a different point of view regarding what emotional intelligence is and how it can be developed.

In psychology, due to the fact that it is a vast field with many subfields, emotional intelligence is of interest to many specialty areas. According to Martins *et al.* (2010), emotional intelligence can be perceived as a predictor of mental health. According to Krueger *et al.* (2009), emotional intelligence is approached as a product of an individual neurological function. Emotional intelligence can also be perceived as an individual characteristic (Mayer *et al.*, 2008; Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Different specialty areas may provide various suggestions for researchers and practitioners that could be useful for emotional intelligence-related research or interventions.

Other scientific fields provide alternative approaches to how emotional intelligence can be developed either by individuals themselves, or with the help of a practitioner. A philosophical approach proposed by Goldie (2009), suggested that emotions are directly linked to how individuals perceive their environment and in order to develop emotional intelligence, it is sufficient to broaden one's perception of the world. An example that Goldie (2009) provides is that individuals with low levels of emotional intelligence are not able to pay as much attention to emotional intelligence displayed by other people and hence - will not be able to notice as much in the emotional realm as an individual with high levels of emotional intelligence. Research in the field of philosophy also suggests the existence of influence of emotional intelligence on ethical decision making (Joseph *et al.*, 2009). Individuals with different levels of emotional intelligence will have a different ethical perspective, which will result in different decisions.

Fischer and Van Kleef (2010) state that emotions of individuals also strongly depend on their social context and everyday social interactions they encounter. Nelis *et al.* (2011) emphasize the impact of emotional intelligence on social relationships these individuals form. Social context and social relationships will therefore impact how emotional intelligence can be developed - as its development is closely linked to that social context. From a sociological perspective, development of individual emotional intelligence may have a positive impact on the society and the system this society is embedded in.

Macionis (2009) gives an example of two perspectives: the structural-functional perspective and the social conflict perspective. The former states that society is formed of

various social subsystems that are interdependent and which - when stable - assure the continuity and growth of the society. According to such an approach, the question of developing one's emotional intelligence should focus on influential individuals, such as leaders, for example, that could have a significant impact on society. The latter sociological view states that there is always a level of inequality between society members embedded in any social system resulting in social conflict, and subsequently leading to social change (Macionis, 2009). According to such an approach, developing one's emotional intelligence results in better conflict resolution skills, which consequently creates a more desirable social change and such that is more beneficial for the society.

Emotional intelligence is an individual characteristic, however, some researchers suggest that it can be translated to characteristics of a larger group. Bandura (2000) gives an example of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is an individual-difference characteristic that can be looked at from a larger group's level's perspective. Sociological interventions targeting self-efficacy of a large group were able to initiate changes in such an area as for example health habits. Such a result indicates that emotional intelligence and related competencies can be looked at from a larger group perspective and individual changes can be inspired from the top down.

3.5 Coaching and Emotional Intelligence

Negative beliefs in the workplace come at a high cost to organizations. According to Buzzan (2001), in the United States such beliefs and negative attitudes result in an annual loss of about $3 billion. Buzzan's explanation of such a high figure is the following: '*besides making the office an unhappy place to work, workplace negativity affects the bottom line: it affects productivity and profit margins; turnover increases; absenteeism increases; customer complaints increase. It becomes a huge business issue*'. The impact of beliefs and attitudes on individual performance is huge. If one looks at *Performance = potential - interferences* equation again, it is apparent that negative attitudes will weigh in as *interferences* and positive attitude will weigh in as *potential* that an individual can access and benefit from.

Attitude has been mentioned in scientific literature as one of the fundamental aspects of emotional intelligence and is also one of the key factors responsible for the coachee's success in the coaching process (Neale *et al.*, 2009). The right attitude helps coachees overcome challenges they face and obstacles they encounter - fear, irrational assumptions, limiting beliefs, self-doubt, low motivation, etc. Emotional intelligence indicates how well coachees value themselves, how well coachees read their own needs but also the needs of others around them, how well they value others, how they interact with people, what kind of personal relationships they form or how they manage themselves, their thoughts, emotions and behavior. The results of study conducted by Mann (1918) seem to confirm the importance of emotional intelligence - only 15% of success can be attributed to individual qualifications, knowledge and technical skills. The remaining 85% - to one's emotional intelligence (specifically self-management and relationship management skills).

As suggested in scientific research, emotional intelligence can be developed. Coaching as an intervention is one of the approaches that can successfully help individuals, teams and organizations develop their emotional intelligence level (Neale *et al.*, 2009). The coach can support coachees and help them make a change in attitudes, habits, beliefs, thoughts or behavioral patterns. Coaching can help with making a lasting and sustainable change. Some specific examples of situations where coaching can help develop one's emotional intelligence are briefly discussed below.

One of the examples is a change process. Many organizations across various industries are undergoing constant changes to adapt to market requirements. Frequently, change is a cumbersome process that is not welcomed by some of the less flexible employees (Kegan & Lahey, 2009). One of the many reasons why the change process may go wrong is poor communication and not communicating changes well or well in advance. Managers, leaders, executive role holders need to be able to display high levels of emotional intelligence in order to be able to communicate all changes properly and clearly. These leaders need to make sure that all employees are well informed, stay well informed and that the shared understanding of what has been communicated is the same across the entire organization. In such cases, coaching can

make a great impact and help individuals strengthen their emotional intelligence and improve across many competencies, one of them being communication (Kegan & Lahey, 2009).

Another scenario where coaching targeted at individual emotional intelligence can make a huge difference is motivation. An organization where employees approach their tasks with low enthusiasm and where co-workers are demotivated and focusing on delivering a bare minimum, is not functioning at its optimal level of output. Motivation has a high impact on performance (Neale *et al.*, 2009). Coaching can help employees in cases of low motivation. Each individual has a different set of motivators and identifying what they are helps individuals create an optimal environment for themselves and reach their full potential (Csikszentmihalyi *et al.*, 2005; Owler, 2012).

Another example where coaching can make a positive impact in the organization and with individuals is during a recession. Downturn in the economy is correlated with higher levels of fear and negativity across the workforce - a recent example of such a scenario being the pandemic of COVID-19 (ICF, 2020a, 2020b; Dans, 2020). What helps individuals adapt and find ways to utilize their potential to their advantage is emotional intelligence - resilience and flexibility in particular. Coaching - specifically when targeting these two competencies - can help individuals adapt and work through their fear and negativity (Neale *et al.*, 2009). Leadership can also largely benefit from developing one's emotional intelligence (Goleman *et al.*, 2002). Individual level of emotional intelligence can help estimate the leadership potential (Druskat *et al*, 2006).

Passmore and Fillery-Travis (2011) suggested the following definition of coaching, which may shed more light on how coaching can help develop emotional intelligence. The authors define coaching as:

"Socratic based future focused dialogue between a facilitator (coach) and a participant (coachee/client), where the facilitator uses open questions, active listening, summarises [sic] and reflections which are aimed at stimulating the self-awareness and personal responsibility of the participant."

The coach facilitates coachee's self-discovery by asking the right questions and helping figure out actions. The main goal of the Socratic dialogue is to help coachees discover themselves through a collaborative and guided process of asking questions (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011). The coach believes that the coachee has all the answers to questions that are being asked during the coaching sessions. The advantages of Socratic questioning in the coaching process include: (1) the areas of cognitive difficulties are recognized, (2) such dialogue brings up the relationship between thoughts, emotions and behavior and helps reveal the patterns, (3) such questioning creates new perspectives, adds alternatives, inspires to try new ideas in reality.

In the process of improving emotional intelligence through coaching, "*the emphasis falls on the coaching of emotional and social intelligence competencies (...), which calls for a concept of EI that is broader than the narrowly defined one in the ability model of Salovey and Mayer (1990)*" (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017). According to Bresser and Wilson (2010), effective coaching requires experience and expert knowledge of psychological approaches that help enhance self-awareness, personal growth and facilitate self-directed learning of their coachees. '*At the heart of coaching lies the idea of empowering people by facilitating self-directed learning, personal growth and improved performance*' (Bresser & Wilson, 2010). Notions such as: self-awareness, personal growth, self-directed learning and many more are the ones that may make coaching a suitable, reliable and valid approach for enhancing emotional intelligence.

Coaches utilize many different individual development strategies, techniques, and coaching tools in order to help coachees increase their self-awareness. According to the ICF (2019a), increasing self-awareness is part of the coaching process where the coach facilitates learning and results. ICF (2019a) defines helping the coachee create self-awareness as the "*ability to integrate and accurately evaluate multiple sources of information and to make interpretations that help the client to gain awareness and thereby achieve agreed-upon results.*". The following examples are shared on ICF's website (ICF, 2019a) to explain how creating self-awareness may look like during a coaching session. While creating coachee's self-awareness, the coach:

1. "*Goes beyond what is said in assessing client's concerns, not getting hooked by the client's description.*
2. *Invokes inquiry for greater understanding, awareness, and clarity.*
3. *Identifies for the client his/her underlying concerns; typical and fixed ways of perceiving himself/herself and the world; differences between the facts and the interpretation; and disparities between thoughts, feelings, and action.*
4. *Helps clients to discover for themselves the new thoughts, beliefs, perceptions, emotions, moods, etc. that strengthen their ability to take action and achieve what is important to them.*
5. *Communicates broader perspectives to clients and inspires commitment to shift their viewpoints and find new possibilities for action.*
6. *Helps clients to see the different, interrelated factors that affect them and their behaviors (e.g., thoughts, emotions, body, and background).*
7. *Expresses insights to clients in ways that are useful and meaningful for the client.*
8. *Identifies major strengths vs. major areas for learning and growth, and what is most important to address during coaching.*
9. *Asks the client to distinguish between trivial and significant issues, situational vs. recurring behaviors, when detecting a separation between what is being stated and what is being done.*"

Some practices enhancing emotional intelligence come from developmental coaching as an application of adult development theories (Bachkirova, 2012). Many structured tools are also used by coaches like California Personality Inventory or Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. While working with the concept of emotional intelligence, coaches can use these tools to keep track of coachee's character traits, values, assumptions, beliefs, strengths, weaknesses, character traits in general, mental and emotional intelligence in particular. Psychometric tools allow coaches to assess the capacities, vision, and the potential of their coachees. Another tool widely used by coaching practitioners is the "360 Feedback" assessment, which helps evaluate how coachees are

perceived, who they are, how they learn new information and how they interact with other people (Morgenson, 2005).

According to Blattner (2005), the approach that coaching takes in order to help individuals enhance emotional intelligence is strength-based, focused on building awareness around emotional states - one's own and those of people around. Blattner (2005) mentions that coping mechanisms, self-awareness and perception play an important role in the development of emotional intelligence, especially being able to observe closely individual emotional states and pay attention to people in the environment to be able to observe their emotional states as well.

In an organization setting, stress and change are part of the work environment. Being reactive, defensive or passive-aggressive is no longer acceptable for a good executive role holder. Therefore very frequently help of coaches is being required in such cases in order to develop emotionally wise and constructive management strategy towards changing work conditions. Concepts that are of high value are resilience, flexibility, openness to change, optimism, or empathy. While working to enhance emotional intelligence, coaches may choose to focus on the development of one emotional intelligence-related concept at a time (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017).

And so, enhancing emotional intelligence may boil down to structured and targeted work with coachees on the following example concepts: self-esteem, regard for others, self-awareness, awareness of others, resilience, personal power, goal directedness, flexibility, balanced outlook, emotional expression, emotional control, empathy, or personal connectedness. Following Neale *et al.* (2009), these concepts are clarified below.

Self-regard (self-esteem)

Relates to who individuals are as people, not to what they do. Individual level of self-esteem reflects how much (or how little) an individual accepts and values herself as a person.

Regard for others

Relates to how much an individual accepts and values who others are as people. This is different from approving or disapproving what they do - an individual does not need to like a specific

action of a person, but she will still respect the person. In other words, as long as the criticism is constructive, it is acceptable to criticize a specific behavior of another person. It is not acceptable to judge them as a person.

Self-awareness

Describes how much an individual is in touch with her body, feelings and intuition.

Awareness of others

Describes how much an individual is tuned in to the feelings of others, their non-verbal cues. *Is the person being empathetic towards others? Does she listen to what others are telling her? Do others matter to an individual?* These are all great questions that the coach may choose to explore with the coachee.

Resilience

"*...the process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress — such as family and relationship problems, serious health problems or workplace and financial stressors. It means 'bouncing back' from difficult experiences.*" (American Psychological Association, 2014). Resilience relates to how well an individual bounces back when things go wrong, how effectively she recovers and how fast she is able to turn negative attitudes, thoughts and emotions into positive ones.

Personal power

Relates to the degree of control individuals have over their own lives and whether or not they see themselves as being responsible for their own actions. The opposite attitude is to perceive oneself as a victim of circumstances and looking to blame others for individual failures.

Goal directedness

Describes how clear an individual is regarding her goals. To what extent do her attitudes, beliefs and actions support her in moving towards these goals or distract her from reaching these goals.

Flexibility

Refers to how easy it is for an individual to adapt her thoughts, attitudes and behaviour when facing change. An important question to answer is the following: is change an opportunity for

creating something better or does change cause resistance as an individual wants to hold on to the way things used to be in the past.

Personal connectedness

Describes the degree of being open and honest about one's feelings and whether one makes significant connections with others or not. The coach may ask: *How easy is it for you to be honest with yourself about how you feel and communicate this to others*?

Balanced outlook

It is about keeping a *positive attitude* in everyday situations but also *staying realistic* about whether or not things will turn out the way one wants and what are the chances of that to happen. It is a balance of *positive mindset in the moment* and *realistic evaluation of the future*.

Emotional expression and control

Refers to how well an individual chooses the time and the way to show emotions. It implies that one feels free to express her emotions but she keeps control and decides when and how to do this.

Empathy

The ability to share and understand another person's "state of mind", feelings, or, at least their emotional reactions to things. Often described as the ability to "*put oneself into another's shoes*", which refers to the attempt of experiencing the exact outlook, feelings or emotions of someone else but within oneself.

Profound individual change and development of emotional intelligence is fostered also with respect towards others and mutual authenticity within personal and professional relationships (Passmore *et al.*, 2013). Coaches help by offering a safe and creative space to foster emotional and psychological transition of their coachees who are working hard towards making a lasting change and find solutions to their personal and professional complex problems. During the coaching sessions coaches provide constant, real time feedback highlighting coachee's defensive behavioral patterns or detrimental reactive impulses that block desired change. While

doing that during every coaching session, they help coachees build self-awareness and develop their emotional intelligence.

3.6 Education and developing Emotional Intelligence

The role of school in building the social and emotional maturity of students has become highly important mainly due to high mobility of the society, rapid technological and communication advancements and change in traditional family structures (White & Kern, 2018). Also, good social and emotional skills have become valued character traits of employees in today's organizations and workplaces around the world (Hanover Research, 2011). Learning programs that specifically target social and emotional abilities help students assess, understand and manage their emotions, evaluate emotions observed in others around them, build and maintain positive relationships with others, and perform better academically (Durlak *et al.*, 2011).

It is therefore of no surprise that some of the focus areas of modern pedagogy include (Białkowski, 2005; Borowska, 2002; Przybylska 2014, 2018; Szorc, 2009; Wysocka & Tomiczek, 2014): (1) research of emotional resources of children and adolescents and their development in various educational environments; (2) the influence of social factors on this development, (3) the meaning of emotions in education, upbringing, learning, and creativity, (4) the role of emotions in therapeutic activities, (5) educational climate of educational environments, (6) teachers' emotional competence, emotional intelligence and emotional work, (7) culture and everyday life of the school - spaces for experiencing and expressing emotions, (8) emotional relationship to school as an environment.

The teacher chooses activities that will allow pupils of all ages to develop their emotional knowledge and skills in everyday interactions. Such emotional work is important for the development of emotional intelligence skills and is close to emotional coaching - learning in a natural way through participation, imitation and cognitive discovery of meaning of emotions (Gottman *et al.,* 1996).

It has been suggested that the condition for efficient work with students' emotions is to be able to effectively manage one's own emotions first (Przybylska, 2018). Various activities in both areas are interrelated, reflecting the teacher's personal beliefs, skills, as well as cultural norms. When education based on emotional development is associated with conscious and reflective management of emotions, the social and emotional aspects of the class become more vibrant, agitated and energetic. In such an approach, the teacher's emotional work has paramount psychological and pedagogical significance.

According to Przybylska (2012), education understood in this way becomes closely related to training and coaching targeting intrapersonal skills (self-awareness, perception of relationships between behavior, feelings and situations, regulating emotions) and interpersonal (communicating emotions in relationships and social situations, recognizing emotions of other people, understanding situations and behaviors). Education based on the development of students' emotional side can therefore take different forms - from a training, therapeutic or preventive program to coaching.

The separation of "soft" and "hard" character and personality traits in practice means disregarding and replacing experience with thinking, feeling with intellectual understanding, and first hand experience - learning with learning by heart. Education focusing on the development of emotions, apart from learning, engages student's personal values, changes attitudes, changes mindsets and engages cultural context.

Emotional skills and competencies can be developed in a variety of ways through education. First, the teacher can use educational materials to develop students' social, emotional and communication skills. Additionally, discussing and analyzing the emotional side of what is happening in school: social circles, their surroundings and environment, talking about interpersonal relationships, recognizing and naming emotions, showing the relationship between feelings, thinking and behavior or showing and practicing different ways of dealing with emotions are forms of emotion-based coaching. According to Przybylska (2018), the value of such an approach is still underestimated in the school system. Emotional-based education, or

coaching do not require any extra financial spending, but rather teachers who are aware of the importance of developing emotional intelligence of their students.

3.7 Emotional Intelligence and adults at an early stage of their career

There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and age and work experience - EI develops as people become older and more experienced (Goleman, 1998; Maddocks & Sparrow; 1998 Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It has been suggested that emotional intelligence increases with age at least until a person becomes 50 years of age (Kafetsios, 2004; Sharma 2017). According to Fariselli *et al.* (2006), some aspects of EI can only be strengthened with training, as they don't naturally increase with age. One of the claims proposed by Mayer *et al.* (1999) is that only if emotional intelligence indeed increases with age and experience, can it be considered a standard intelligence. The results obtained in their research showed that the sample group of adults received significantly higher EI scores than the adolescent group. These results have also been confirmed in further scientific research (Day & Carroll, 2004; Van Rooy *et al.* 2005).

Out of all age-groups, adults at an early stage of their career (24-35 years) face the most unique set of circumstances in regards to emotional intelligence challenges as the maximum events need to be handled on both professional and personal front (Sharma, 2017). Currently in many countries, generic EI skills development programmes are being offered to students, however, upon graduation (at the age of 24), they face many EI-related challenges (Jameson *et al.* 2016). Some of those challenges are: recognising one's emotions and their effects (self-awareness), keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check (self control), conflict management, taking initiative, motivation, adaptability when facing change, resilience, empathy, communication or teamwork.

Emotional challenges faced by the adults at an early stage of their career can be grouped into *emotional competency* (tactfully handling emotional upsets, high self-esteem), *emotional sensitivity* (empathy, interpersonal relations, communicating emotions) and *emotional maturity* (self-awareness, flexibility, adaptability, developing others). According to Sharma (2017),

emotional competency, sensitivity and maturity have a higher impact on EI of adults at an early stage of their career. Experience and learning is less naïve than in the earlier stage and decision making becomes stronger (Sharma, 2017). As Fariselli *et al.* (2006) point out, learning and sensitivity increases with time. It becomes easier for individuals to access their emotions, they also have a better idea of experienced emotions. Another reason why emotional competency and sensitivity are important determinants of EI at that age (25-35) is that this is the most interactive experience and learned stage of life (Goleman, 1998; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Maddocks & Sparrows, 1998). Due to constant learning, training and the ongoing process of gathering experience, emotional competency, sensitivity and maturity develop which helps strengthen EI (Fariselli, Ghini, & Freedman, 2006).

CHAPTER 4. The concept of Well-being

This chapter gives an overview of well-being: introduces definitions of well-being available in the literature and characterizes the concept. The chapter also provides clarification of links between well-being and coaching and well-being and positive education.

4.1 Well-being: an overview

Well-being is an important variable discussed from various perspectives - individual, social and economic - in social research (Prescott, 2010). The World Health Organization defines well-being as the presence of '*a state in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully and is able to make a contribution to his or her own community*' (WHO, 2004). Another definition of well-being is '*optimal psychological functioning and experience*' (Ryan & Deci, 2001). In scientific literature, there is still a considerable amount of ambiguity regarding the definition of well-being. Various concepts have been used interchangeably as synonyms of well-being, for example happiness, life satisfaction or quality of life (Allin, 2007).

Dodge *et al.* (2012) described well-being as the balance between resources and challenges. In that approach, well-being is a dynamic variable. An individual achieves stable well-being when they have the psychological, social and physical resources to meet the psychological, social and/or physical challenge they are facing. Other studies also mention the following terms as components that may define well-being: optimism, positive emotions or relationships, engagement, meaning and life purpose, vitality, flourishing, self-determination, self-esteem, or resilience (Huppert & So, 2009; Leach *et al.*, 2011). Each definition represents elements of wellbeing but individually do not reflect everything that well-being entails.

Just as there are multiple definitions of well-being, theoretical and scientific literature mentions multiple well-being categories: subjective, emotional, psychological and social (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Just as in the case of well-being, none of these categories have one and unique definition, and are often referred to together with other concepts. The

inclusion of other indicators allows a better and more holistic description of psychological well-being (Carruthers & Hood, 2004; Michalos, 2004).

Green *et al*. (2006) describes subjective well-being as the one that pertains to happiness and psychological well-being as the one that pertains to human potential or meaning of life (Ryff, 1989). According to Ryan and Deci (2001), subjective well-being is often referred to as life satisfaction, happiness, presence of positive mood (or analogously absence of negative mood). Edwards (2005) gives a similar example of psychological well-being, which may be referred to as '*positive mental health'*. Psychological well-being has been related to the following six components: autonomy, self-acceptance, environmental mastery, life purpose, positive relationships, and personal growth (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Satisfaction with one's own self-esteem has also been shown to predict the level of individual well-being (Michalos *et al.*, 1999). Scientific research has shown that psychological well-being develops through: emotional regulation, personality characteristics, identity and life experience (Helson & Srivastava, 2001).

There are a few variables that have been recognized by evidence-based literature as having an impact on well-being - either positive or negative. One of such concepts is self-esteem, which has been shown to positively influence well-being (Pearson *et al*., 2012). According to Joseph and Linley (2005), individual character traits, psychological maturity and having life purpose all enhance psychological well-being. Similar effect has been observed for subjective well-being in case of goal attainment - typically reasons behind setting and progressing towards certain goals are set by an individual, and therefore subjective (Spence & Grant, 2007; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Increased well-being has also been reported for individuals who successfully pursue important life goals (Sheldon et al., 2002; Green et al., 2006). Sheldon and Elliot (1999) noted that individuals who progress towards their goals out of autonomous reasons such as inspiration, motivation, interest, hobby, enjoyment or fun, are able to reach higher levels of well-being. Individuals who, on the other hand, progress towards their goals out of controlled reasons such as external rewards, obligation, or duty, have lower levels of well-being (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). A variable that has been shown to be negatively correlated with well-being is regret (Boniwell *et al*., 2014; Roese *et al.*, 2009).

Scientific research has demonstrated that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and well-being. A study by Zeidner *et al.* (2012) shows that measures of EI were positively correlated with measures of psychological well-being and a substantial number of health outcomes. In a study by James *et al.* (2012), EI was significantly related to three psychological health variables (out of six that were chosen). And so, the outcomes of the study showed that EI was positively correlated with satisfaction with life and negatively correlated to the presence of psychiatric symptoms and the use of alcohol. Other scientific research has also linked higher emotional intelligence scores to better mental and physical health (Schutte *et al*., 2007; Martins *et al*., 2010; Zeidner *et al*., 2012), as well as well-being and happiness (Cabello and Fernández-Berrocal, 2015; Sánchez-Álvarez *et al.*, 2015).

4.2 Positive education and well-being

Positive education has grown rapidly in recent years with more and more evidence showing a positive impact of such an approach on many areas of individual and social life, including well-being. According to White and Kern (2018) positive education may have a positive impact on students and teachers within a school setting, and other individuals within the educational community. Given the available evidence, more and more schools decided to incorporate positive education to help with levels of well-being of all individuals involved (McCallum & Price, 2010; Seligman *et al.*, 2009). More training programs become available and more research and applications are gaining support from international organizations like for example International Positive Psychology Association (education division) or the International Positive Education Network.

The pedagogy of positive education has shifted as well in order to accomodate a fully holistic approach where educating the whole person is an objective. Such an approach is where both well-being and academic mastery become the goal of learning and teaching (White & Kern, 2018). There are multiple reasons why positive education and its focus on well-being fits into traditional education systems. A focus on well-being becomes more than about how a student is feeling on a particular day or week - it becomes more about a balanced individual development and growth to become a healthy and contributing member of society (Kern *et al.*, 2017).

Young people experiencing mental health issues often face a risk of repeated incidents leading to extended disability. They are also at a greater danger of experiencing other negative life circumstances such as other physical and mental health problems, dropping out of school, unemployment, or poor social relationships to mention a few (Kessler & Bromet, 2013). It has been suggested in the evidence based scientific literature that school plays a paramount role in prevention of such scenarios as it has a capacity in many cases to at least minimize or even prevent the adverse effect of mental illness (White & Kern, 2017). Furthermore, such research also suggests that the school engagement can be strengthened where positive psychology interventions (for example mindfulness) are being applied (Waters, 2011). Such interventions have been shown to have a positive impact on: student's attention, memory, cognitive performance, problem-solving, resilience, stress and emotional problems (Creswall, 2017; Zenner *et al.*, 2014).

4.3 Coaching and well-being

Learnings from positive psychology

Scientific research indicates that individuals can influence about 40% of their own happiness levels. What is called "40% solution" suggests that individual happiness levels depend in 50% on genetics, 10% on life circumstances, the rest - 40% - is within individual control (Lyubomirsky, 2006, 2008). Positive psychology has built a sound theory focused on human flourishing around that individual impact on one's own happiness level. Positive psychological interventions have been shown to significantly improve well-being (Seligman *et al.*, 2005; Sin and Lyubomirsky, 2009).

Positive psychology has highly impacted the coaching field by providing theories and scientific evidence and so much more (Hefferon, 2011; Kauffman, 2006; Kauffman and Scouler, 2004). Coaching has greatly benefited from research studies provided by positive psychology researchers, reliable and valid assessment tools, techniques and strategies, as well as access to new interventions, and innovative developments to traditional helping approaches (Passmore *et al.*, 2013).

According to Biswas-Diener (2010) happiness or well-being as a specifically targeted outcome of the coaching process are relatively rare. As goals, though, they are important - for the coachee to be able to achieve optimal functioning and maximum performance, they need to include focus on positivity, optimism, happiness, and well-being. There are multiple benefits associated with experiencing positive emotions frequently including higher levels of curiosity, creativity, wellness, fitness, social skills, perseverance, self-acceptance, purpose, meaning in life and mastery (Biswas-Diener, 2010; Cohen *et al*., 2003). Coaching can utilize the scientific evidence in order to help their coachees realize the importance of positive emotions and well-being.

The impact of coaching on well-being reported in evidence-based studies

Multiple empirical studies report a wide array of benefits related to well-being that result from a coaching intervention (Bowen, 2013; Francis & Milner, 2006; Easton & van Laar, 2013; Leach *et al.*, 2011; Nixon-Witt, 2008; Pearson *et al*., 2012; Shearsmith, 2011; Schneider *et al*., 2011; Whitley, 2013; Worgan, 2013; Zandvoort et al., 2009). Multiple studies report positive impact of coaching on multiple variables, where well-being is one of them. Gardiner and Kearns (2012) listed improvements across the following aspects as a result of coaching: well-being, goal attainment, hardiness and mental health. The study by Gordon-Bar (2014), reported higher self-efficacy, goal attainment and well-being level. Multiple studies indicated improvement across many well-being related variables: psychological well-being, subjective well-being, improved mental health (decreased depression and anxiety, lower stress level), better perceived health status (Ammentorp et al., 2013; Grant, 2003; Green *et al.*, 2006; Green *et al.*, 2007). The study by Spence and Grant (2007) reported improvements across multiple dimensions of subjective and psychological well-being, however, only an increase in environmental mastery was statistically significant. Improvement in well-being has also been reported in evidence-based studies measuring physical health-related variables (Newnham-Kanas *et al*., 2008; Newnham-Kanas *et al*., 2011).

The study by Martin et al. (2012) focused on "problematic" personality traits. The results obtained indicated that changing such traits can have a positive impact not only on subjective

well-being and existential well-being but also multiple related variables: commitment, gratitude, involvement, longevity, coping, inspiration, resilience, friendships, or peer acceptance. Curtis and Kelly (2013) show in their study how the *perception* of the participants' well-being shifted while undergoing coaching. Simultaneously, improvements were observed in many well-being related aspects: psychological courage, self-regulation, hope, open-mindedness, and love of learning.

Educational coaching and well-being

There is a growing evidence based scientific research indicating that coaching is a powerful approach supporting learning, growth and development for students, teachers, and others in educational institutions. According to Griffiths (2005), the role of the teacher in the educational system has shifted from being purely an instructor to becoming more of a facilitator. Such a facilitator would use a coaching, question-based Socratic approach in teaching in order to help students understand the material on a deeper level and learn how to learn independently rather than simply "teach them" (Whitmore, 2004). The coaching approach has been successfully applied with students, teachers, or student counselors (Campbell & Gardner, 2005; Devine *et al.*, 2013; Green et al., 2007). Well-being related outcomes achieved in evidence based studies include: higher levels of well-being, increased hardiness and hope, better developed coping skills and resilience, lower levels of depression.

Mechanism of improvement of individual well-being

The assumption that coachees come from healthy, non-clinical populations implies that they are able to not only identify their own issues themselves, but also prioritize them. Hence the agenda, desirable outcomes and possible actions are all chosen by the coachees themselves, without intervention or advice from the coach, and are already prioritized according to what the coachee values most (Whitworth *et al*., 2007; Williams & Davis, 2007). Coaching itself as an approach emphasizes individual strengths, potential and wellness (Williams & Davis, 2007). Coaches build on that and help their clients maximize their performance. They support their

clients as they make choices about efficient lifestyle and '*bridge the gap between thought and action*' resulting in greater well-being (Francis & Milner, 2006).

Another hypothesis explaining how coaching may positively impact well-being is related to goal attainment. According to Grant (2003) coaching supports coachees as they make *purposeful* changes, which has a direct, positive impact on well-being. There are two aspects of coaching that facilitate this mechanism - efficient goal setting and efficient problem solving (Schneider *et al*., 2011). One of the coaching techniques suggests setting SMART goals - specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timed. With goals set efficiently and with the focus of coaching on wellness, coaching helps coachees broaden their experience, make changes in desired areas of their lives and consequently increase their well-being (Grant, 2003). The results obtained in evidence-based literature indicate that progressing towards meaningful goals is positively correlated with well-being (Frisch, 2013; Green *et al*., 2006; Sheldon *et al*., 2002).

Supportive results have been obtained in the study by Leach *et al*. (2011) where authors analyze goal striving and the role of coaching. According to this study, better goal striving can be achieved by applying the following cycle: (1) creating a future vision, (2) defining desired results, (3) identifying goals, (4) strengthening motivation, (5) creating action plans, (6) observing progress, and (7) tweaking action plans as needed. Such cycle - according to Grant (2003) - uses self-regulation and leads to sustainable, permanent behavior change. Consequently, coachees observe '*enhanced sense of positive effect, purpose, meaning, control and connectedness*' and related increase in subjective and psychological well-being (Leach *et al*., 2011).

Another study by Gordon-Bar (2014) suggests well-being increases when the coachees are connected to their goals and that the goals need to be meaningful to assure such connectedness. The coaching model described by Gordon-Bar highlights the following components of the process: (1) focus is on individual strengths, (2), intrinsic motivation is addressed, (3), goals are specific and meaningful, (4) self-regulation is a crucial component of setting actions, (5) progress is monitored through feedback cycles.

Research by Deci and Ryan (1985) confirms the above - goal attainment has been shown to be optimal when it's based on individual strengths and intrinsic values. According to Lewis (2011), strengths are "*positive traits that a person owns, celebrates and frequently exercises*". The strengths approach in coaching has its focus on what is working (as opposed to what is not), what is right (as opposed to what is not) and what is strong (as opposed to looking at weaknesses). Empirical research has indicated that focus on one's strengths and the use of individual strengths is correlated to increased well-being (Clifford, 2011; Curtis & Kelly, 2013; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Govindji & Linley, 2007). Also, as suggested by Linley *et al.* (2010), individuals who rely on their strengths are able to effectively reach their goals, which then also leads to higher well-being.

Another approach uses self-determination theory to explain why individual well-being would improve following the coaching process (Spence & Oades, 2011). Curtis and Kelly (2013) suggest the following mechanism: applying the coaching approach allows to strengthen psychological courage of the coachee, which then results in meeting the basic needs, which according to Self-Determination theory are competence, autonomy and psychological relatedness. Once these needs are addressed, an individual is able to reach optimal well-being (Curtis & Kelly, 2013). Self-Determination Theory emphasizes the importance of autonomous goals, which are set based on intrinsic motivators. As opposed to externally motivated goals, based on external motivators, autonomous goals are fully aligned with the individual needs, values, purpose and direction of development. Such goals are easier to sustain over time as the coachee is more committed to achieving these goals. Also, the satisfaction level experienced by the coachee when such goals are achieved is higher and lasts longer compared to the satisfaction level of reaching externally motivated goals (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998; Spence & Oades, 2011).

Yet another explanation for how coaching may impact individual well-being levels is based on Self Regulation Theory (Kanfer, 1970). Newham-Kanas et al. (2011) in their study suggest that coaching may have a significant positive impact on self-regulation. According to Self-Regulation Theory, when self-regulation increases in one domain of coachee's life, it also brings an increase in self-regulation level in another domain, even the one that is unrelated.

According to the results obtained by Newham-Kanas et al. (2011), coaching results in increased levels of self-esteem and self-acceptance and greater ability in one's skill to face obstacles - which are components of well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Worgan (2013) and Green *et al*. (2006) suggest that Hope Theory may provide some insights into how coaching impacts well-being. Individuals whose level of hope is high, experience many benefits, for example better health (physical and psychological), better interpersonal skills and better academic achievement (Snyder, 2000). Kauffman (2006) suggested that these benefits occur for individuals with high levels of hope because they are able to come up with a better response to challenges and show more perseverance when facing obstacles. Snyder (2000) suggested that the level of hope is an outcome of two variables: pathway thinking and a sense of agency. Pathway thinking can be best described as *finding alternatives* and sense of agency is equivalent to thinking that *it is possible to achieve set goals*. Coaching theories and practices have incorporated both of these concepts in coaching interventions to improve professional and personal functioning of coachees. Hope Theory also states that when individuals pursue their goals, they feel positive emotions and as a result - increased well-being (Snyder et al., 2002). Green *et al*. (2006) emphasize that the goals need to be attainable and meaningful for the individual to experience positive emotions. Goal-orientation is paramount in Hope Theory - and based on that, coaching as a goal-oriented and solution-focused process may be considered a hope-enhancing intervention (Green *et al*., 2006). Empirical studies indicate that greater hope leads to greater well-being (Rand & Cheavens, 2009; Kauffman *et al*., 2010), coaching can be therefore directly linked to higher well-being through hope enhancement (Worgan, 2013).

Ozer and Martinez (2006) propose a personality change based mechanism explaining why a coaching intervention may have a positive impact on well-being. In their study, they were able to distinguish specific character traits which - when changed - affect all domains of a person's life and can increase (or decrease, depending on the direction of change) subjective and existential well-being. These uniquely identified traits are: extraversion, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness and neuroticism. Beyond the discovery by Ozer and Martinez,

other studies confirm the above relationship between personality and well-being as well (Boyce *et al*., 2013; Diener & Lucas, 1999; Wood *et al*., 2008). Boyce *et al.* (2013), for example, state specifically that '*personality is the strongest and most consistent predictor of high subjective well-being*'. Since coaching can result in personality shift as coachees work towards changing the above character traits (Martin *et al*., 2012), it can therefore also impact well-being.

Michaels (2010) suggests that a coach can employ a powerful combination of behavioral and cognitive techniques and strategies in order to increase coachee's well-being. What Michaels recommends is that a double approach is used - a set of specifically targeted behavioral techniques is introduced alongside significant shifts in thinking. Cognitive mapping is one of the examples indicated as suitable for a coaching intervention - it can lead to an array of positive changes such as better emotions management, less impulsivity, greater willpower or more efficient goal attainment (Michaels, 2010). Other cognitive techniques and strategies that may be utilized by the coach are visualization, positive affirmation, which have also been reported to positively affect well-being (Michaels, 2010).

CHAPTER 5. Psychoeducation: an overview

This chapter gives an overview of psychoeducation: introduces definitions of psychoeducation available in the literature and characterizes the concept. The chapter also provides clarification of links between psychoeducation and well-being skills and psychoeducation and coaching.

5.1 Definition of the approach

Colom (2011) defines psychoeducation as: "*a patient's empowering training targeted at promoting awareness and proactivity, providing tools to manage, cope and live with a chronic condition (i.e. adherence enhancement, early warning sign identification, lifestyle, crisis management, communication), and changing behaviours and attitudes related to the condition.*" As Wrona-Polańska (2013) suggests, psychoeducation is a form of health promotion - its objective is to raise awareness of the factors which promote and compromise health and a healthy lifestyle through psychological education and improvement of the psychological knowledge base. Such approach of psychoeducation consequently leads to behavioral change that strengthens, maintains and promotes health (Wrona-Polańska, 2013).

Psychoeducation plays a significant role as knowledge is considered the most important resource helping individuals cope in different life situations (Hobfoll, 1989). Psychoeducation substitutes guilt with responsibility, helplessness with proactivity and denial with awareness (Colom, 2011). By strengthening psychological knowledge, psychoeducation helps increase awareness on the one hand and shape health promoting behaviors and a healthy lifestyle on the other hand (Sęk, 2002). Psychoeducation aims to teach about how people function in different life circumstances and in various social conditions. By learning about difficulties encountered in life and increased understanding of those difficulties, it is possible to find solutions that are convenient and attainable for the individual (Walsh, 2010).

There are three elements that are required to build a good and healthy, growth-oriented psychoeducational environment (Colom, 2011): open-door policy, team effort and trust.

Open-door policy allows full flexibility with fewer arranged appointments but increased availability of the practitioner. Psychoeducation encourages an individual to have a proactive attitude, and so the open-door policy helps create a proactive and flexible relationship between the patient and the practitioner. Psychoeducation - as Colom suggests - is more efficient where a therapeutic team is available. It increases full availability for the patient and assures that each suggested intervention belongs to a different specialist within the team. It is also important that a professional relationship is founded on trust. Psychoeducation promotes an alliance relying on collaboration, information and trust between the practitioner and the patient. In such a relationship the patient is empowered and perceived as trustworthy, which results in an improved relationship (Colom, 2011).

5.2 Psychoeducation & Well-Being Skills

The global dynamics of well-being levels has not been optimistic in the past decades. Well-being is a reflection of how satisfied the individual is with various fields of her life. Well-being is evaluated as high if an individual experiences more pleasing situations and less disturbing situations (Eryılmaz, 2009). Well-being has also been referred to as "positive mental health". Along with not so optimistic dynamics of well-being, mental health has not been improving as much globally as one could wish and depression levels have been on the rise.

Depression levels among young people have been increasing and can be described as "high" worldwide. Almost a fifth of young adults have experienced an episode characterized as "clinical depression" before they started university (Lewinsohn *et al*., 1993). Some sources estimate that compared to 50 years ago, around ten times more people suffer from depression (Wickramaratne *et al.*, 1989). The onset of depression is earlier than in the past decades - it used to affect adults, and the onset of depression with its first episode often affects already teenagers (Lewinsohn *et al*., 1993). There is an agreement in the scientific literature regarding well-being, mental health and depression that the prevalence of depression is high and the percentage of adults who suffer from it but have not been diagnosed or treated is high (Costello *et al*., 2006).

When speaking of well-being, flourishing and optimal human functioning, operational definition used in the psychoeducational literature emphasizes that the following characteristics need to be present: optimism, positive emotions experienced by an individual, engagement, interest, positive relationships, self esteem, meaning of life, life purpose, self determination, vitality and resilience (Huppert & So, 2009). According to research conducted by Keyes (2007), and Huppert & So (2009), only a fifth of the population can describe themselves as *flourishing*, or in good mental health. Ten percent describe themselves on the opposite spectrum - experiencing mental health issues which may potentially develop into clinical depression (Keyes, 2007; Huppert and So, 2009). More than half of the population - 55% - can be classified as of "moderate mental health" and the remaining 15% fall in the slightly worse characteristics: experiencing an 'empty' state, somewhat deprived of positive emotion, missing substantial positive relationships, resilience or vitality.

Scientific research on mental health, well-being, optimism and positive emotion has indicated the following findings across different areas of life:

- Adolescents who are evaluated as "happy" earn substantially more money 15 years later compared to less happy adolescents (Diener *et al*., 2002).
- According to Giltay *et al*. (2004), heart attack is a much less likely cause of death for optimistic people compared to pessimistic people (Giltay et al., 2004).
- Positive emotions cause some reduction in racial biases. Research has shown that people in a joyful mood are able to memorize faces of other races better (Johnson & Fredrickson, 2005).
- Life satisfaction is better predicted by subjectively evaluated level of individual's meaning in life and engagement than the level of pleasure experienced by the individual (Peterson et al., 2005).
- Corporate teams identified as "*economically flourishing*" make at least 3 times more positive statements than negative statements during business meetings. Teams identified as "*economically stagnating*" display a lower ratio (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005).
- The ratio of positive statements to negative statements exchanged by spuses required in marriage to be identified as *flourishing* is at least 5:1 (Gottman & Levenson, 1999).

- According to Duckworth and Seligman (2005), the level of self-discipline predicts high school grades two times more accurate than the IQ level.

As shown by the examples cited above, the scientific knowledge base allowing us to understand positive emotions, engagement, meaning, well-being or flourishing is growing. These positive characteristics, moods and states allow to fight depression, improve mental health, life satisfaction, and they promote learning (Seligman *et al*., 2005; Fredrickson, 1998). Also, as indicated by scientific research, well-being related skills can be taught (Seligman *et al.*, 2009). This is where psychoeducation can play a crucial role and help individuals develop these skills.

Psychoeducation can help individuals learn about their mental health concerns and better understand issues related to mental health. Psychoeducation also has an effect of de-stigmatization of various mental health conditions, which occurs when individuals become more knowledgeable about those conditions and associated risks (Bauml *et al.*, 2006). According to Bauml *et al.* (2006), when individuals have better knowledge of mental health conditions, emotional concerns, or issues related to low well-being, for example, it is easier for them to accept them, and make decisions towards improvement or active choices that enhance their daily functioning as well.

5.3 Psychoeducation and Coaching

Psychoeducation plays an important role in the coaching process, as learning and coachee's development is one of the objectives of the coaching process (Griffiths & Campbell, 2009; Lawton-Smith & Cox, 2007). The goal of coaching is to create the best learning conditions, address resistance to learning, minimize it, and allow the client to move forward as a result (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Wang & Millward, 2014). Facilitation of learning and results constitutes the foundation of the coaching process as clients present with various objectives, goals and expectations concerning personal as well as professional performance (Whitmore, 2004; Lawton-Smith & Cox, 2007; Stewart *et al.*, 2008).

According to Joo (2005), coachees approach coaching already with a desire to grow and increase one's competence by learning and development of new skills (the so called *learning*

orientation). Scientific literature lists a few theories that explore the relationship between learning and coaching. Jackson (2004) for example highlights the role of reflection. Reflection allows the coachee to gain distance from emotions of the experience and introduce objectivity into the evaluation of the situation. That way, coachee can learn from their past experiences and balance that learning with future learning opportunities. According to Jackson (2004), reflection helps coachees "see their actions from the perspective of their overall goals" (p. 66).

According to Griffiths and Campbell (2009) coaching initiates and maintains a continuous cycle of learning which occurs through stages of discovering, applying and integrating knowledge. And so, new knowledge is being discovered through a process of relating, questioning, reflecting, and listening. When new knowledge is being applied, accountability helps coachees take actions based on their recent learning. This stage is deepened by questioning (Griffiths and Campbell, 2009). In the end, taking responsibility for one's own change and learning is what allows coachees to integrate new knowledge.

CHAPTER 6. Placing Coaching in Pedagogy

Coaching as an approach is aligned with recent developments in education (Bennet & Culpan, 2014). The coaching process is highly associated with learning and has been more and more frequently utilized in education (Hargreaves, 2005; Claxton, 2008). According to Tinning (2010), pedagogy is a fundamental element in the coaching process. As such, a pedagogical framework should inspire and challenge coaches (educators) to think about current learnings (*the what)*, the process of learning (*the how)*, and the role of a coach as a professional who facilitates that learning (Fosnot, 1996).

The coaching process creates various learning opportunities for coachees which inspires change and growth across multiple areas of coachee's personal and professional life (Whitworth et al., 1998; Starr, 2003; Zeus & Skiffington, 2000). It has been suggested that when coachees are facing difficulties, they are able to rely on past learnings, deepen their current learning, and change their behavior as a result (Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011). Growth and learning comes from coachees' natural tendency to seek value. Coachees seek value not only in new situations but also new opportunities, new choices and the contribution of other people in their environment. While creating solutions and evaluating their resources throughout the coaching process, coachees intuitively draw from interactions that can contribute the most to their current situation with highest value and opportunity (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011). Such a strategy allows them to find and achieve the best possible outcome.

This chapter will focus on: (1) coaching and adult learning, (2) the concept of coaching and its relationship to education and learning, (3) coaching in the context of chosen pedagogical frameworks and (4) main differences between coaching and education.

6.1 Coaching and Adult Learning

Coaching has inherited many applications from theories of adult development (e.g., Graves, 1970; Kegan, 1982; Torbert, 2004; Wilber, 1979). Their work has been influenced by many adult development specialists whose research and practice focused on developmental

patterns of individuals in various aspects of human nature: moral reasoning, cognitive ability, ego strength, emotional maturity (Graves 1970; Kohlberg, 1969; Loevinger, 1976; Perry, 1970; Piaget, 1976). All theories indicate that throughout their lives, individuals experience multiple profound changes across all of the above mentioned aspects of human functioning. What these theories also suggest is that there is a logical, chronological sequence of stages that occur in the life of every individual dictating to a certain extent how they feel, how they engage with their immediate surroundings and environment, and how they create meaning from what happens. Because of the existence of these predetermined stages, development of each individual can be influenced to some extent through support or challenge coming from other individuals at the right time during one of the developmental stages (Passmore *et al.*, 2013).

According to Wilber's multidimensional model of human development (1979, 2000, 2006) there are certain principles governing the process of development. "*Holarchy*" implies that individuals take their time to go through each of the developmental stages and it is not possible for any stage on the developmental trajectory to be omitted, as each one of of them builds on the learnings and experiences of the one before. Another important principle suggested in Wilber's theory is that individual development is independent across all aspects of human nature - moral, cognitive, emotional, ego etc. The principle of independent development suggests that all aspects of human functioning can reach different stages of development at the same time. "*Although substantial empirical evidence demonstrates that each line develops through these holarchical stages in an invariant sequence, nonetheless, because all two dozen of them develop relatively independently, overall growth and development is a massively complex, overlapping, nonlinear affair, following no set sequence whatsoever*" (Wilber, 1999). Some authors disagree and argue that developmental stages do indeed follow a certain structure (Beck and Cowan, 1996; Laske, 2006). Loevinger (1987), for example, suggested: "*If the stages really reflect a common 'deep structure', the stages of those variables should all proceed in tandem*".

Scientific literature suggests that there are three most characteristic and major stages of adult development: *unformed ego*, *formed ego*, *reformed ego* (Beck and Cowan, 1996; Wilber, 2000). Below is a table adapted from Bachkirova (2016) describing all three stages within five

major aspects of human nature: cognitive style, interpersonal style, conscious preoccupations, character development and engagement in action. The descriptions of the stages and aspects are based on theories of Bachkirova (2011), Cook-Greuter (1999), Graves (1970), Kegan (1982), Kohlberg (1969), and Loevinger (1987).

Stages	Unformed Ego	Formed Ego	Reformed Ego
Cognitive style	Socialised mind *Ability for abstract thinking and self-reflection*	Self-authoring mind *Can see multiplicity and patterns; critical and analytical*	Self-transforming mind *Systems view; tolerance of ambiguity; change from linear logic to holistic understanding*
Interpersonal style	Dependent Conformist/self-conscious *Need for belonging; socially expected behaviour in relationships; peacemakers/keepers*	Independent Conscientious/ individualist *Separate but responsible for their own choices; communication and individual differences are valued*	Inter-independent Autonomous/ Integrated *Take responsibility for relationship; respect autonomy of others; tolerance of conflicts; non-hostile humour*
Conscious preoccupations	Multiplistic *Social acceptance, reputation, moral 'shoulds and oughts'*	Relativistic/ Individualistic *Achievement of personal goals according to inner standards*.	Systemic/integrated Individuality; self-fulfillment; *immediate present; understanding conflicting needs*
Character development	Rule-bound *'Inappropriate' feelings are denied or repressed. Rules of important others are internalised and obeyed.*	Conscientious *Self-reliant, conscientious; follow self-evaluated rules; judge themselves and critical of others*	Self-regulated *Behaviour is an expression of own moral principles. Concerned with conflicting roles, duties, value systems.*
Engagement in action	Unformed ego *Reduced sense of control over themselves and environment. Higher*	Formed ego *Capacity to take ownership of the past and act independently.*	Reformed ego *Harmony between mind and body in action. Appreciation of complexity in the*

	dependency on others for action.	*'Mind over body' control of action*	*relationship between self and environment.*

Table 1. A description of the three stages in adult development with five major aspects of human nature.

The adult development theories are of high value to coaching. They allow coaches to better understand their coachees by highlighting the differences and individual aspects of their developmental process. Various personality theories help explain which coaching approaches would work best on which developmental stage of a coachee (Passmore *et al.*, 2013). Adult development theories apply to coaching practitioners and their growth just the same. Coaches need to be aware of their own stages of development in order to provide the best coaching support in the coaching process (Bachkirova and Cox, 2007).

It is warranted to mention that there are some misinterpretations of adult development theories and their specific application by coaching practitioners. These controversies include:

- coaches oversimplifying development theories, specifically their application on an individual level and applying generalisation neglecting individual aspects and stages of development;
- specifically when various measurement tools and quantitative instruments are used, coaches over-categorise or impose their judgment on an individual;
- frequent uncalled for prescriptive assessment of individuals by coaches.

The adult development theories have not been created specifically for the coaching field. Adult development theories have been developed with the objective of shaping a better knowledge of humans, their individual development, and individual differences - in how individuals feel, in how they engage with their immediate surroundings and environment, and in how they create meaning from what happens (Bachkirova, 2011). The approach of adult development theorists was scientific and followed scientific rigor including observation, description, listing potential explanation of observed phenomena related to developmental

aspects of human nature (Passmore *et al.,* 2013). Such rigor of the coaching field when it comes to individual development is lacking simply because it is not a primary focus of coaching.

Bachkirova (2011) mentions another concern related to how coaching practitioners apply adult development theories in their coaching practice. It may happen that instead of approaching developmental stages as a source of better understanding of the coachee, the coach may actually misinterpret coachee's progress and attribute achievements to displayed coaching skills and the coachee's hard work and motivation towards achieving her goals. However, where the coachee might be in relation to known developmental stages would in many cases be a more appropriate explanation of the alleged coaching success.

Another concern is related to limitations of any theory simply not being able to fully predict in practice the behavior, emotions, or a cognitive stage of a particular individual (Bachkirova, 2011). Coaching requires a very individualistic approach and each coaching relationship as well as each coaching process are complex and happen across multiple aspects of human nature - cognitive, emotional, interpersonal, moral to mention a few. Coaches need to be tuned in to identify who the coachee is as an individual regardless of supportive theories in the realm of adult development.

6.2 Coaching and Education

Coaching is a process in which a coach establishes a relationship with their clients and facilitates their further development. Coachee's strengths, positive attributes and achieved successes are all in the center of the coach's work. In that sense, coaching as an approach fits in with teaching and learning approaches, as it provides a coachee-focused (learner-focused) agenda and program. As such, coaching helps coachees (learners) progress in their achievements and improve their performance.

There is no universal approach in coaching - coachee's specific situation, potential, strengths and weaknesses determine the individual nature of work (the right choice of coaching methods, techniques and style) and the responsibility of the coachee for the achieved outcomes. Similar to the learning process, the final effect of the coaching sessions depends on the

individual engagement of the coachee. Coaching is therefore an individual approach built around individualized growth patterns of the coachee.

Knowles (1970) listed six principles of learning: (1) individuals are internally motivated, (2) self-directed, (3) learners bring their own life experiences and knowledge to learning, (4) they are goal oriented, (5) practical, and (6) like to be respected. Coaching inherently takes into account these principles. Coachee's developmental process is individualized and additionally based on coachee's self-awareness. To improve, change, and grow, the coachees need to know themselves well, know how to identify their weaknesses, strengths, motivators, needs and passions. Coaching is therefore also focused on building coachee's self-awareness as one can change and influence only what one is aware of. Self-awareness is also a necessary condition for acquiring new skills.

Coach as educator

Bennet & Culpan (2014) suggest that a coach *is* an educator. Pedagogy has been referred to in literature as a social, interactive and engaging process (Cushion *et al.*, 2003; Jones, 2006), where the focus of "teaching" and "educating" is overall development of an individual (Lee, 1988). Watkins & Mortimore (1999) define pedagogy as "*any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another*". In his book, Pritchard (2009) lists a range of definitions for the process of learning. Here are a few selected from that range: "*Knowledge gained through study.*", "*A change in behaviour as a result of experience or practice.*", "*To gain knowledge of, or skill in, something through study, teaching, instruction or experience.*", "*The individual process of constructing understanding based on experience from a wide range of sources.*"

According to Light and Dixon (2007) the role of education is paramount as "*lifelong learners, problem solvers, reflective independent learners, and creative and innovative thinkers*" are in high demand in contemporary society. The authors point out that learning is no longer exclusively restricted to schooling - it is a lifelong process where formal schooling constitutes a significant, but not the only component (2007). There are many different ways for learners to

learn - these depend on their socio-cultural backgrounds, needs, skills, motivators, past and aspirations (Bennet & Culpan, 2014).

The above context applies to coaching as well - it is the coach's responsibility to establish an environment for coachees (learners) to learn and grow as individuals. With this role description in mind, coaches can also be perceived as "*educators*". As an educator, the coach aims at facilitating coachees' development across multiple domains: physical, cognitive, cultural, social and moral (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac, 2009). The coaching process is built around teaching and learning coachees to grow as professionals and as human beings. The fundamental ideas and assumptions of the educative process apply therefore to a coaching process as well (Jones, 2006).

In order to establish a "growth" environment, the coach needs to display excellent communication skills and build a positive relationship with the coachee (learner), which consequently determines success (Nakamura, 1996). As educators, coaches use their communication skills and rely on the positive connection with the coachee in order to help coachees identify: (1) their own values, (2) the values that are currently missing but are required from the educational and pedagogical standpoint, and (3) coaching pedagogies that will help understand the present values, acquire a new set of values, and consequently result in an optimized coaching process (Bennet & Culpan, 2014).

The coaching process and teaching

Coaching "*enables learners to take control of their own learning through non-judgmental questioning and support*" (CUREE, 2005). This exact characteristic of the coaching process can also be found in research on what is effective teaching and learning (Bruner, 1960; James *et al*. 2006; Rogers, 1994; Swan, 2006; Wegerif *et al*. 2004). Rogers (1994) noticed that listening to students resulted in students taking more actions themselves which consequently not only made them more independent, but on top of that allowed them to find solutions to some of their own problems. Similarly in the coaching process, listening allows coachees to verbalize all their thoughts - even those that are being typically dismissed - which in return helps them rationalize their feelings and reach a more holistic view of a situation. A coaching relationship that's

successful requires "*developing trust, and attending respectively and with sensitivity to the powerful emotions involved in deep learning*" (CUREE, 2005). The process of building a successful relationship between teachers and students is similar - teachers need to be able to show empathy, really listen, care and offer positive regard for their students (Rogers, 1994).

A collaborative relationship (partnership) between a coach and a coachee is a foundation of a successful coaching process (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). It is important that both coach and coachee form a partnership to work together and create honest, authentic and effective communication. If the communication is not sicere, and the coachee's needs are not successfully identified and met, the coaching process will not be efficient. Establishing a genuine, open relationship can be a challenge, hence the cooperation as well as commitment of both the coach and the coachee is required (Zeus & Skiffington, 2000).

Setting goals is central to both the coaching and educative process. Coachees (learners) set goals against which they can measure their gradual progression during each subsequent coaching session (Jones, 2006). The act of setting goals and staying committed to achieving them allows individuals to learn and develop in a progressive way, building on learnings and achievements from previous coaching sessions and growth that occurs in between the sessions. Coachees learn through an interactive as well as self-directed learning process (CUREE, 2005; James, 2006). The coaching approach is flexible and innovative and can be uniquely tailored to meet various needs in terms of developmental areas, goals, and aspirations a coachee presents with (CUREE, 2005).

Developmental role of coaching and teaching

Coaching as an intervention is utilizing various helping, developmental and training techniques (Williams & Davis, 2007). According to Whitmore (2004), coaching helps people learn rather than teach them. Parsloe (1999) states that coaching is a "process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve". At the core of coaching as an educational method are assumptions about the development of an individual and the conditions in which that development takes place. It has been suggested that development is

equivalent to the use of the hidden potential of the individual (Whitmore, 2004). The essence of development is therefore the launch of hidden, unused resources of the individual. Development occurs when coachees create space for full disclosure of their potential (Whitmore, 2004).

It is assumed in the coaching framework that the coachee is naturally creative, gifted with skills and endowed with possibilities (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). Development is not just about acquiring knowledge or skills, but revealing these often dormant, hidden, unused opportunities. The development process that takes place as part of coaching consists in their discovery and more effective use. A coach's conviction about the abilities of a coachee increases the chances of their disclosure, use, and consequently success (Whitmore, 2004). Similarly in the field of education - the teacher's belief in the students' capabilities directly affects their level of achievement (Blazar & Kraft, 2017).

Both coaching and education fall under the assumptions of the Lisbon Strategy in a very similar way. According to the Lisbon Strategy (and Europe 2020 strategy), the strategic goal of the EU is to support the growth of a knowledge-based economy, as dynamic and competitive as possible at the same time, which secures more employment in "conditions of greater social cohesion" (Bachnik, 2006). An important dimension of coaching is to provide emotional, cognitive and instrumental support, which aims to raise the level of knowledge to help modify the behavior. The role of the coach is to ask questions, build agreement, motivate, support in formulating the goal, support in the pursuit of the goal and process control (Stankiewicz & Hejduk, 2013). The abovementioned skills to shape the right relationship and environment of trust are also features of an innovative educator, for whom it is also necessary to master the art of empathy, and to have a fairly high level of social and emotional intelligence.

To summarize the above mentioned considerations - coaching (as well as education) allows coachees (learners) to reflect on the present state of their knowledge and understanding, and actively participate in their further development (Ketelaar *et al*., 2009). Further growth occurs as coachees (learners) consciously regulate their own learning process. Coachees benefit from the coaching relationship as they work towards achieving individual goals. The most optimal coaching relationship is built on mutual trust, openness, and authenticity where the

coach and the coachee respect each others' skills, needs, space, and expertise (Zeus & Skiffington, 2000). The coach (and educator) needs to believe in the potential of the coachee (learner) in order to motivate the coachee and facilitate the achievement of goals that have been set (Blazar & Kraft, 2017; Whitmore, 2004). Development and growth of the coachee (learner) is incrementally progressive and occurs through setting a series of steps that need to be taken in order to achieve the final goal. These steps and the progression along the path are closely monitored by the coach and coachee during the coaching sessions (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). The coach uses a variety of coaching approaches and techniques to encourage learning. These include (but are not limited to) using real-world situations, analogous examples from the coachee's past and problem-based or solution-oriented approaches (Ketelaar *et al*., 2009).

Educational Coaching

Coaching teachers - *educational coaching* - is a reliable and established professional practice in order to help teachers develop their professional skills (Wood *et al.*, 2016). Educational coaching helps with professional development through continuous feedback and support. Such feedback and support may take the form of real time classroom observations, which would be followed by a feedback session where reflections and improvement suggestions are being shared (Wesley & Buysse, 2006). The objective of these constructive feedback sessions is to positively impact teacher behavioral patterns and consequently student achievements.

Classroom practices and teachers' behavior in the classroom may have a very high impact on student achievement (Chetty *et al.*, 2011). Professional development - including educational coaching as one of the methods - is a widely applied idea to improve teacher practice so that it has a positive and lasting effect on student knowledge and skill set (Yoon *et al.*, 2007). Yoon *et al.* (2007) suggest that the mechanism of influence is through teacher skill - when teachers undergo professional development, their teacher skills including decision making skills greatly improve, which results in better decisions that serve higher student achievement and better acquisition of student knowledge.

Coaching is one of the methods for teacher professional development. According to Wood *et al.* (2016), coaching as a method stands out compared to other practices in terms of efficacy - the influence coaching has on teacher practice exceeds results obtained by other professional development methods (Wood et al., 2016). It is an important evaluation of coaching, as it has become an increasingly more common teacher skill enhancement practice in schools (L'Allier *et al.*, 2011). Evidence based literature suggests a few coaching methods that have proven to be effective: supervisory, side-by-side, remote coaching, or multi-level to mention a few (Akhavan, 2015; Wood *et al.*, 2016). Each one of these methods results in different types of interactions teachers experience with their coach. However, all these methods are based on the same key elements improving teacher practice or behavior: observation, feedback, reflection, and improvement suggestions.

Evidence-based literature indicates that sustained teacher coaching may improve teacher practice, student achievement promoting behavior and the classroom environment (Kraft *et al*., 2018). According to Guskey & Yoon (2009) it is an important benefit of coaching, because other professional development practices have not been shown to be as efficacious and have not shown the same success rate in improvement of student achievement level or classroom environment.

6.3 Coaching and Chosen Pedagogical Frameworks

Coaching is a well-established pedagogical approach. The two meta-theories that are the foundation of how we currently understand the learning process and knowledge construction are: (1) social-cultural constructionism (Bruner, 1996; Vygostsky, 1978; Wenger, 1999) and (2) a person-centered approach (Rogers, 1956, 1963). Both of these theories look at how learning and cognitive development - a complex, dynamic and interdependent process - occurs and is facilitated. In social-cultural constructionism for example, this process is described as one where (1) social and individual aspects are communicated according to a context created by culture, (2) knowledge and common as well as individual understanding are shared and constructed in such context and (3) common language and culturally recognizable symbols facilitate that process (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996).

A humanistic, person-centered approach perceives individuals as experts, with an inclination (or motivation) to grow, develop and reach optimal functioning given that the surrounding social environment is right for them and supportive (Joseph, 2006; Rogers, 1956, 1963). A supportive environment is such where individuals feel understood, accepted and valued. The coaching premise is fully congruent with these approaches (Joseph, 2006; Palmer & Whybrow, 2006). This section will look in more detail at how coaching relates to chosen pedagogical approaches.

Pedagogical constructivist framework

Constructivism is a pedagogical approach which aims to explain the ways in which individuals build knowledge by using their own experience (Bennet & Culpan, 2014). When such pedagogical approach is applied to a coaching process, the role of the coach is to empower and guide the coachee (student) in a series of individual coaching sessions to facilitate goal attainment through improvement of performance, functioning, personal skills or missing expert knowledge (Bennet & Culpan, 2014).

Pedagogic models applied in leadership for example (for optimal work performance) emphasize the role of individual coaches in enabling and motivating coachees to achieve high professional results or performance outcomes (Iredale & Schoch, 2010). These pedagogical approaches though, are very different from approaches explaining the learning process in a classroom-based formal setting (Jones *et al*., 2008). Such coaching approach is based on constructivist learning framework and follows all of its assumptions - it is social, reflective, cognitive, learning comes from reflection and the coachee's practical experience.

A coaching framework parallels a constructivist pedagogical framework. It is educative, holistic (integrating past experiences and learnings with the present evaluation of the resources and skills, with desired future goals and achievements), engaging, and moving coachees in a professional direction. When applied to coaching, a constructivist pedagogical framework places the coach as an educator in a progressive environment that is also educationally sustainable for the coach and the coachee (learner). A constructive pedagogical framework emphasizes the

importance of a meaningful, reciprocal coaching relationship that's based on partnership as well as the coachee's reflection and building on practical experience (Bennet & Culpan, 2014). Richardson (2003) suggests that there are two relevant areas when applying a pedagogical constructivist framework to a coaching approach - psychological and social.

Psychological constructivism

The premise of a psychological constructivist approach is that the learner makes individual sense and draws individual meaning from every single pedagogical encounter. When applied to the coaching process, this would imply that the coachee interprets every situation in their own individual way - and the coach is aware of such a learning process and understands that it happens on an individual level. During each pedagogical encounter, a coachee (learner) creates a cognitive schema - a cognitive map of all new information is sketched, new information is then processed, compared with currently accumulated knowledge after which the outstanding information is added to existing info-structures (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Such learning process is optimal when the learner is fully immersed and actively participating in it (Culpan & McBain, 2012).

The coaching framework shares its premise with the constructivist approach - coachees (learners) are treated as independent entities (experts) who actively choose information from which they create meaning from and add it to their existing knowledge base. Active engagement of the cochee (learner) in the process of individual construction of meaning is the fundamental concept of psychological constructivism, since there is nothing as important to learners as themselves. Facilitation of active engagement (such that is present in the coaching process for example) encourages personal reflection and allows learners to create individual meaning of encountered events, find relevance and authenticity (Culpan & McBain, 2012).

Social constructivism

Social constructivism approach focuses more on the social environment of the learner. Knowledge is constructed while a learner is interacting with her environment, and social and cultural aspects of her life. Through such interactions, knowledge of the learner is constructed out of all elements that are considered meaningful and relevant by the learner herself as well as

the society and culture the learner interacts with (Ernest, 1999). These interactions which can involve coaches, peers, family, co-workers, teachers or other members of the community constitute a fundamental determinant of the learning process for the individual (Bennet & Culpan, 2014). The process of information processing and knowledge creation that comes from social interaction with others is the same in case of social constructivism as in case of psychological constructivism. The individual creates a schema for each social interaction, and integrates newly acquired information into current knowledge and understanding.

A coaching process offers complexity of interpretations, and a wide variety of opinions and knowledge exchanged. A social interaction of this kind will therefore typically lead to greater learning insights, as the coachee (learner) makes more individual meaning (Pritchard, 2009). Additionally, a relationship that's reciprocal and based on partnership creates a rich and educative environment. In such a context, the coach becomes an excellent educator, the coaching process is educational, engaging and coherent from the standpoint of the social constructivist framework (Bennet & Culpan, 2014).

Self-reflection

According to John Dewey (1933, 1963) all learning is based on reflections on past experiences of an individual. Donald Schön (1983, 1987, 1991) expanded this thought and suggested that knowledge in professional fields should be constructed from experience. In his approach, Schön considered experience-based knowledge underrated and "school knowledge" - overrated and over-emphasized. Schön developed detailed descriptions for practitioners which were linking "reflective practice" (John Dewey, 1933) with practitioner knowledge and individual experience of the learner. Such descriptions also included a concept of "tacit knowledge used in practice" - such knowledge that is difficult to identify, specify and altogether describe (Gilbert & Trudell, 1999). Such approach is used in the coaching process - the coach guides the coachee to better learning and performance, encourages self-reflection and challenges the coachee to improve understanding, performance and implement changes in behavior that are more optimal to reach the goals (Gilbert & Trudell, 2004).

Self-awareness is fundamental for self-reflection; it is the starting point for development and its basic tool (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). To think about individual development and success (professional, personal or social) - understood as a maximum use of individual potential - it is necessary to be aware of and understand individual strengths and weaknesses. To achieve perfection in any field, an individual should therefore become an expert in finding, describing and applying her strengths. Self-reflection is the way to achieve that (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001).

Experiential approach

It has also been suggested that within the various pedagogical approaches, coaching also has an *experiential* element and can be referred to as "*learner-focused constructivist experiential approach*" (Jossberger *et al*., 2010). "Constructivist" emphasizes the importance of the learner's prior knowledge and "experiential" learning emphasizes real workplace scenarios and demonstrations (Dewey, Schön & Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Fry, 1975). Jarvis (2004), for example, defines experiential learning as follows: "*Human learning is a combination of processes whereby whole persons construct experiences of situations and transform them into knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, values, emotions and the senses and integrate the outcomes into their own biographies".*

Recognition of experience and its importance for effective learning has increased with time in many fields including coaching. The work of coaches in the professional field is directly related to their own experience, and learning from it. To help coachees capture advanced skills and work practices, an experiential approach is particularly helpful bringing in demonstrations, real workplace situations, and practical examples. These aim at clarifying "tacit" work practices - such skills or aspects that cannot be easily or directly taught (Gilbert & Trudell, 1999). To add to such approach Joyce and Showers (1995) added a component of *innovation* and proposed a *proximal principle* as an efficient approach to continuous professional development. According to *proximal principle*, the closer the proposed innovation or experiment is to the prior experience of the learner (coachee), the greater its impact will be.

Tim Gallwey has been mentioned as one of the coaches who contributed to the notion of experiential approach in coaching and learning and has been recognized as a pioneer in the field of human change, transformation and growth. He applied both learning and coaching principles to the notion of human change. He combined theories from the field of psychology with techniques and strategies used by athletic coaches while training athletes. His coaching model was based on "*stilling the mind, observing the self, and learning from the self*" (Brock, 2014; Gallwey, 1974). Whitmore (1992) stated that Gallwey's ideas "*coincided with the emergence in psychological understanding of a more optimistic model of humankind, rather than the old behaviorist view that we are little more than empty vessels into which everything has to be poured*". Gallwey brought on a revolutionary shift to how coaches thought not only about coaching but also about learning.

Gallwey took ideas introduced by Rogers and Maslow, and then applied them in his work as a tennis coach. According to Brock (2014), he combined "*the humanistic and the transpersonal, along with a strong dose of spirituality, as well as the potential for change from within, resulted in an approach that was applied first in sport and later in business*". The coach's role - according to Gallwey (1974) - was to help the client direct and focus fully on the present moment. Learning from that present moment and allowing oneself to search and find oneself in that moment, was the next step of Gallwey's coaching approach. It was Gallwey, who established the importance of self-trust and non-judgmental observation in the process of learning and coaching (Brock, 2014).

The coaching process which is coachee-centered, emulates the experiential learning approach. Effective coaching requires a supportive and non-judgemental environment where all coaching conversations take place. Since an efficient coaching relationship is a partnership (Whitworth *et al.*, 2007), such conversations are mutually beneficial as both the coach and the coachee share their past relevant experience. This reciprocity has been described by Rogers (2004) as a "*dance of mutual influence and growth*". Professional learning is enhanced through coaching and one of the elements that allows for growth is the recognition of experience.

Situated learning

Another pedagogical approach that touches on the notion of learning from experience or practical learning, is *situated learning*. According to Duffy & Cunningham (1996), in order to be meaningful learning needs to be situated in the real-world context which is relevant to the individual. Such context can be provided in practical work-based learning for example. Work-based learning has been found to be highly motivating and engaging for learners - it links to experience of practice in real workplace scenarios instead of providing learners with abstract theoretical lectures that are disjointed from such experience (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996). Outside of practical context, abstract formal learning has limited relevance for some learners and therefore provides limited learning opportunities (Brown, *et al*., 1989). The situated learning approach is also directly linked with pedagogical constructivist framework (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Land & Hannafin, 2000) and hence applied to coaching framework as well. Its core idea states that learning occurs in a specific practical context and is related to the experience of the individual, which consequently shapes the learning process (Alessi & Trollip, 2001).

Problem-based learning

Problem-based learning approaches have a wide variety of applications in the coaching framework. During the coaching process, the coach consciously encourages coachees (learners) to approach the real-world situations and engage with their complexity in order to solve problems that do not necessarily have "easy" solutions (Savery & Duffy, 2001). The primary role of the coach in a problem-based learning setting is to empower coachees to look for realistic solutions to real-life problems that they are facing. In such a role, the coach does not offer solutions, but instead, encourages coachees to find their own solutions and facilitates learning through asking powerful questions, engaging in critical analysis, reflection and creative problem-solving techniques (Ellis, 1998; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011; Nixon-Witt, 2008). As they work with coachees, coaches use example workplace situations, real emerging problems and various workplace challenges as unique case studies to encourage the use of innovative and creative approaches to solve a problem. It allows coachees (learners) to develop innovative

thinking, learning independence and confidence. By encouraging coachees to always outline their own solutions, coaches also facilitate the development of *self-directed* learning (Savery & Duffy, 2001). In such a learning process, coachees (learners) are fully capable of generating their own solutions and are not dependent on the coach or others as solution providers.

Such pedagogical approach is coupled with *solution-focused* coaching - where each coachee (not the coach) is perceived as their own best expert. In the coaching process, coachees use their skills, strengths and knowledge to design their own solutions and the role of the coach is to empower the coachee to do so (O"Connell & Palmer, 2007). Coachees are at the center of the *solution-focused* process - with the coach's help they define the future state that they would like to achieve and construct the pathway and individual steps (involving constructions of behaviors, actions, thoughts, attitudes) that needed to be taken in order to achieve the desired future state (Cavanagh & Grant, 2010).

Autonomy & independent learning

Learning and development requires autonomy (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). Autonomy in pedagogy is defined as "*mutual help and dialogue of equitable parties, free choice, self-directed learning, developing a strong and mature personality by keeping freedom limited only by the freedom of others, developing a sense of self-worth, awakening of pro-social feelings, understanding the freedom and integrity of other people, a sense of confidence and safety, the ability to interact with others*" (Pilch, 2003). Autonomy is based on individual responsibility and free choices (Lalak & Pilch, 1999).

The coaching process is based on autonomy. The direction of work, its subject, goals, and the plan are set by the coachee (Ellis, 1998; Newnham-Kanas *et al.*, 2011). The basic premise of coaching is that the coachees work to achieve the goals they want to achieve. The key development factor is the responsibility of the individual, which is the result of free choice and a sense of influence (Nixon-Witt, 2008; Whitworth *et al.*, 2007). Within the coaching process, any time a coachee chooses both a goal and the way it is achieved, the coachee also assumes responsibility for these goals and is being held accountable for the progress. As indicated by the definition quoted above, in any autonomous learning process, having a free choice is required to

feel truly responsible. The coaching approach recognizes the importance of and respects the free choice of the coachee (learner), their autonomy and individual learning process (Wang & Millward, 2014).

Coaching has also been described as a cognitive, socio-cultural, apprenticeship-like approach that fosters autonomy as well as independent, self-directed learning (Jossberger *et al*., 2010). The coachee learns how to be coached and gets familiar with the coaching process out of free will, a proactive choice, and by letting go of negative attitudes (Green *et al*., 2006). Having the freedom of choice is paramount for the ability of coachees to fully commit to the coaching process, and ultimately achieve their desired goals. With such commitment, it becomes easier for the coachee (learner) to be open to learning, to be challenged and assessed by the coach, and to undergo performance reviews on a regular basis to assure the progression towards set goals (Griffiths & Campbell, 2009). In order to improve, coachees need to be able to respond actively and adjust efficiently to coach's suggestions. When coachees are granted freedom of choice and follow an autonomous learning process, they are more likely to engage in self-reflection, discover their strengths, weaknesses and development areas, and stay committed to changing behaviour (Kegan & Lahey, 2009).

Coachees attitude throughout the learning process is of high importance. Coachees themselves need to take responsibility for any changes that need to be applied to their learning patterns as well as their behavior. Coachees are expected to do that in an increasingly autonomous way in order to adjust to ongoing and continuously changing demands in the workplace (Ladegård, 2011). An efficient learning process within any coaching relationship requires coachees to be honest about their learning barriers, whether psychological, physical, situational, workplace-related or other. Efficient learning also requires coachees to be committed to overcoming these barriers, whatever they might be, as they occur - with support from the coach. Coachees also need to be committed to the coaching process and stay with it in order to see results and successfully achieve their goals (Griffiths & Campbell, 2009).

Ultimately - following an autonomous learning approach - the coaching approach aims at fostering independent learning and developing coachees' (learners') knowledge (Wang &

Millward, 2014). The coaching process supports coachees in learning how to think independently and set their own goals through emphasizing autonomy, creativity, exploration and uniqueness (Kimsey-House *et al.*, 2011; Pearson *et al*., 2013; Whitworth *et al*., 2007). Coaching is a learner-centred process, in which the coach may suggest various techniques to encourage the coachee to engage in self-reflection and work towards achieving meaningful goals. Such techniques may include: keeping a diary, reflective writing, analysis of case studies, designing one's own case study (or activities), experimenting, fieldwork projects, or routines (Ellis, 1998; Schneider *et al.*, 2011).

Lifelong learning and learning power theories

Other approaches aiming at explaining the learning process are lifelong learning theory (Claxton, 1999) and learning power theory (Deakin-Crick *et al.*, 2004; Deakin-Crick, 2007). One of the goals of lifelong learning is not only to prepare a person for work in a chosen profession, but also to equip them with such qualifications and competences that enable professional mobility, flexibility and adaptation to changing technologies and requirements of the job market (Ambroży, 2012). Literature on lifelong learning mentions many requirements of the job market that adults face: the ability to cope with reality, keep up with the changes, meet the expectations of employers, being effective etc (Dębska, 2010). With so many requirements towards employees, coaching has been mentioned as an approach that helps with professional development, better performance in the role, coaching helps people achieve goals and at the same time helps them adapt to the needs of their organization (Dębska 2010).

Lifelong learning is the fundamental factor conditioning socio-economic development, especially when considering the global economy. Lifelong learning is focused on the results obtained in the process of learning and requires a few key competences in order to achieve personal fulfilment and development. According to the European Parliament key competences are those which allow individuals meet their needs for "personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment".

The Reference Framework of the European Parliament and of the Council (2006) lists eight key competences for lifelong learning:

1. Communication in the mother tongue

   Communicating in the mother tongue "*is intrinsically linked to the development of an individual's cognitive ability to interpret the world and relate to others"* (European Parliament, 2006). It requires an individual to know the vocabulary of the language, its functional grammar and all the other functions of the spoken and written language.

2. Communication in foreign languages

   "*Essential skills for communication in foreign languages consist of the ability to understand spoken messages, to initiate, sustain and conclude conversations and to read, understand and produce texts appropriate to the individual's needs"* (European Parliament, 2006). Learning foreign languages is considered part of lifelong learning.

3. Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology

   According to European Parliament (2006), "*an individual should have the skills to apply basic mathematical principles and processes in everyday contexts at home and work, and to follow and assess chains of arguments.*" Mathematical competence is the outcome of the following components: mathematical reasoning, understanding mathematical theorems, assumptions and proofs, communicating using symbols, axioms, definitions and mathematical language as well as using appropriate aids. Basic competence in science and technology "*includes an attitude of critical appreciation and curiosity, an interest in ethical issues and respect for both safety and sustainability, in particular as regards scientific and technological progress in relation to oneself, family, community and global issues*" (European Parliament, 2006).

4. Digital competence

   Today's world requires individuals being able to engage in various communities, networks, and groups for social, personal, cultural or professional purposes, which all of them at some point or another require use of technology. "*Use of Information Society*

Technology requires a critical and reflective attitude towards available information and a responsible use of the interactive media" (European Parliament, 2006).

5. Learning to learn

   Learning to learn requires motivation, confidence, and a positive attitude towards acquiring knowledge. Skills that are helpful for individuals who continuously learn to learn are: problem-solving, efficient obstacles handling and persistent change management. "*The desire to apply prior learning and life experiences and the curiosity to look for opportunities to learn and apply learning in a variety of life contexts are essential elements of a positive attitude*" (European Parliament, 2006).

6. Social and civic competences

   "*Individuals should have an interest in socio-economic developments and intercultural communication and should value diversity and respect others, and be prepared both to overcome prejudices and to compromise*" (European Parliament, 2006). These competencies require individuals to be able to actively engage in public life and display an interest in solving problems of local as well as more global community through constructive participation.

7. Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship

   According to the European Parliament (2006), "*an entrepreneurial attitude is characterised by initiative, pro-activity, independence and innovation in personal and social life, as much as at work"*. Such an attitude also requires a high level of determination and motivation to meet objectives and achieve goals.

8. Cultural awareness and expression

   "*A solid understanding of one's own culture and a sense of identity can be the basis for an open attitude towards and respect for diversity of cultural expression*" (European Parliament, 2006). On top of that, a positive attitude includes creativity, willingness to participate in cultural life and passion for artistic self-expression and sharing one's creative skills with larger community.

Lifelong learning theory and learning power theory suggest that a learning process requires involvement of the following elements: identity, experiences, attitudes, capacities, skills, and relationships of an individual. These theories are rooted in a cognitive field theory and suggest that in order to be efficient, learning needs to relate to everyday life, as the perception and reality of the individual are relativistic and interactive (Lewin, 1947a, 1952). Individual motivations and cognitive processes are strongly correlated with short-term and long-term goals of the individual. As suggested by Lewin (1952) and Deakin-Crick *et al.* (2004), change in behavior may happen only when an individual has an in-depth understanding of all the factors and events that influence said behavior. The coaching framework is in line with these theories - it is goal-directed and progressive; it recognizes both positive and negative impact of the environment on learning; and it acknowledges the complexities of the coaching process itself.

Visible Learning

According to Hattie (2012), "*visible teaching and learning occurs when learning is the explicit goal, when it is appropriately challenging, when the teacher and the student both (in their various ways) seek to ascertain whether and to what degree the challenging goal is attained, when there is deliberate practice aimed at attaining mastery of the goal, when there is feedback given and sought, and when there are active, passionate, and engaging people (teacher, student, peers, and so on) participating in the act of learning*." The results obtained in a meta-study by Hattie (2008) show that there are ten factors that influence learner's achievements the most. These are: (1) student self-reporting grades, (2) formative assessment, (3) teacher clarity, (4) reciprocal teaching, (5) feedback, (6) teacher-student relationship, (7) the use of meta-cognitive strategies, (8) questioning, (9) teacher's professional development, and (10) problem-solving teaching.

Visible learning requires teachers to look at the learning process the way their students do - and engage in the learning process with their perspective as well. In such a process, learners have full clarity on what it is that is required from them and how they are required to achieve it. On the other hand, the same clarity allows the teacher to evaluate perfectly whether or not learning has occurred. In the visible teaching and learning process, teachers need to regularly

evaluate how they affect their students' learning and - if needed - adjust their teaching methods accordingly. The fundamental idea behind visible teaching is that the teacher needs to evaluate the level of thinking of the student and then challenge and encourage them to exceed that level. Such a process is called "*cognitive acceleration*" (Hattie, 2012). The learning goal not only needs to be challenging but also explicit - instructions need to be provided at a level that matches the learners processing capability (Hattie, 2008). This allows learners to think about the learning process more explicitly and also perceive it on an ongoing basis.

In the process of visible learning, learners become their own teachers and can be referred to as "self-regulated". These are students whose self-awareness level is high or those who are resourceful and use multiple strategies to achieve their learning goals (Hattie, 2008). Self-regulated students have high levels of metacognition - they apply various alternative strategies when their current strategy fails, and they have a clear understanding of what an "accomplished" task is (Purdie & Hattie, 2002). According to Pintrich *et al* (2000), self-regulation is "*an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate and control their cognition, motivation and behaviour, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment*". Self-regulated students know the specific of a learning goal as well as how to achieve it; they are equipped with multiple learning strategies and know which one to use when (Schraw & Dennison, 1994).

Visible learning approach also has its reflection in the coaching framework - the coaching process is coachee-centered and the coachee is perceived as the expert, therefore the coach's role is to always look at matters discussed from the coachee's perspective and thinking level. The coach chooses and applies the best coaching technique *in the moment* to assure optimal progression and learning path of the coachee. The goals that are set by the coachee need to be challenging and specific. The coachee's progress is being evaluated regularly during the coaching sessions and if the strategy used is not efficient in achieving the goals, the coachee will be encouraged to change it, experiment, innovate and try something new.

Critical Pedagogy

Pedagogy has been described by Giroux and Simon (1988) as "*a deliberate attempt to influence how and what knowledge and identities are produced within and among particular sets of social relations*". Within that context, the authors define the concept of critical pedagogy as the one that "*can be understood as a practice through which people are incited to acquire a moral character*", and - as further stated by Giroux and Simon - this should be the primary objective of citizen's education.

The objective of critical pedagogy as an approach to teaching and learning is empowering learners and making teaching and learning a more human experience (Kincheloe, 2005). The major goals of critical pedagogy are raising awareness and rejection of discrimination against others (Gor, 2005). Critical pedagogy aims at transforming oppressive relations of power - such transformation allows learners to shift from being perceived as objects of education to becoming subjects of their own autonomy (Kincheloe, 2005). According to Freire (1970), education that inspires problem posing and encourages questioning of problematic issues in students' lives allows them to learn and practice critical thinking. Problem posing also allows students to develop knowledge themselves (Joldersma, 1999). Freire (1970) suggested even broader advantages - critical thinking is the pathway to building a critical consciousness, improving learners' life conditions and to consequently build a more equitable society. Giroux (1998) supported Freire in his theory claiming that the role of education is to enable the students to think critically as citizens who contribute to democratic society.

A school, a university or any academic institution are public areas whose role is to educate people to become conscious and critical citizens, able to take their own responsibility for a democratic public life (Giroux, 1997). That is why teaching and education becomes so crucial according to Giroux - it is because education is work towards development and fruition of a democratic and ethical public areas. By stating that, Giroux was highlighting the key role of education in organizing and maintaining democratic social order (Giroux, 1997).

Critical pedagogy has as its central idea the empowering of oppressed social groups and hence its interest in political education (Shor, 1992). Political education intends to build the attitude of active citizens who participate in the processes of a democratic public life in a voluntary, but fully conscious and critical way. The concept of voluntary participation, based on an individual's free will is fundamental. According to Shor (1992), in order to belong as a citizen in a democratic system, an individual must participate in creating meaning, articulating needs, implementing plans, and assessing their outcomes. Giroux agrees and suggests that democracy requires an audience that is able to question and criticize public employees and clercs and their rights - and change them whenever needed (Giroux, Searls Giroux, 2004).

Giroux presents the idea of the school being a democratic public area in which students acquire knowledge and skills in a supportive environment based on solidarity. It is solidarity which provides the foundation for constructing emancipatory community life later on (Giroux, 2005). At the same time, Giroux emphasizes that a key role in such a mission of education belongs to the teachers as the ones who own the responsibility to educate the students.

Another aspect of education that Freire (1970) challenged is that in its traditional approach, education treats teachers as experts - pillars of knowledge - while at the same time students are perceived as not knowledgeable at all. It is the teachers that pass on knowledge and the students who - knowing nothing - are on the receiving end, without the possibility to question the knowledge received. In such a division of roles in the educational process, a teacher is the authority and the expectation is that students are obedient to this authority - they receive knowledge, the content received is chosen by the teacher, they memorize it and repeat (Freire, 1970).

Knowing how to pose a problem is a very relevant skill for learners as it allows them to engage with the problematic issue directly. Problem posing is based on the learners' real life situations and their reality, and by focusing on problems that are close to their reality, learners are more engaged in the educational process. Critical pedagogy as an alternative to traditional educational approach emphasizes that learners have a right to ask questions (Freire, 1970). In practice, problem posing requires the teacher to listen to students, come up with real-life

situations and scenarios and open the floor to discussion by asking a series of inquisitive questions (Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan, 1999).

Giroux and McLaren (1989) write: "*Rejecting the traditional view of instruction and learning as a neutral process antiseptically removed from the contexts of history, power and ideology, critical educational theory begins with the assumption that schools are essential sites for organizing knowledge, power, and desire in the service of expanding individual capacities and social possibilities.*" According to Giroux and McLaren (1989), empowering students and civic education are two key aspects of critical pedagogy that shape the role of education in building *critical democracy*. Public education is perceived as the foundation of committed citizenship, and schools constitute a social area which shapes and organizes a certain moral vision.

Giroux and Aronowitz (1985) indicate that didactic solutions and principles are imposed from the top down on teachers and have nothing to do with preparing students to become active and critically thinking citizens. They criticized behavioral educational models, in which teachers are perceived not as creative thinkers, who are able to go beyond the teaching methods and critically assess the goals of educational discourse and practice. Instead, they are perceived as obedient clerks carrying out the orders of others.

The concept of *teachers as intellectuals* discussed by Giroux and Aronovitz (1985) was intended to enrich teachers and make them realize that it was a serious mistake to deprive their profession of intellectual freedom. The role teachers may play as intellectuals is to serve the occurring change. Teachers can create ideological and material conditions both at school and within the wider community that would give students the opportunity to become citizens who have the knowledge and courage to make hope something real and goals they hope for - achievable (Giroux & Aronowitz, 1985).

Teaching work is characterized as a public service of invaluable importance for the development of a democratic society (Giroux, 1988). Academic teachers, because of their freedom, have a particularly important role to play as engaged, public intellectuals (Giroux, Searls-Giroux, 2004). Their task is to develop a language of criticism and possibilities across

various fields, uses theory as a source of inspiration, and defines politics not so much as a criticism, but as a transformative intervention into public life (Giroux, Searls-Giroux, 2004).

The coaching approach complies with critical pedagogy in a sense that it strengthens human capital, it is a holistic approach, and helps individuals challenge the problems of social exclusion through the use of inclusive innovations tools and coaching techniques. One of the key goals of critical pedagogy is to allow learners to improve and ultimately master the necessary social skills to be able to actively participate in an inclusive democratic community (Kincheloe, 2007). It is also one of the inherent objectives of the coaching process. Coaching is a co-operative process that helps build social capital and by helping individuals, enhances community (Browne, 2006).

As one of the many types of coaching - *educational coaching* - fits into the ideology of critical pedagogy. It strengthens human capital through allowing teachers to grow as professionals and have a bigger positive impact on their pupils. Classroom practices and teachers' behavior in the classroom have an unquestionable impact on student achievement (Chetty *et al.*, 2011). Yoon *et al.* (2007) suggest that the mechanism of influence is through teacher skill - when teachers undergo professional development, their teacher skills including decision making skills greatly improve, which results in better decisions that serve higher student achievement and better acquisition of student knowledge. In that sense educational coaching contributes to a better society - one of the goals of critical pedagogy. Coaching teachers also fosters critical thinking - both of teachers as well as their students. Educational coaching - along the lines of critical pedagogy - is therefore one of the methods improving teacher practice so that it has a positive and lasting effect on student knowledge and skill set (Yoon *et al.*, 2007).

Both approaches - critical pedagogy and coaching - aim at empowering students and coachees respectively, by helping them help themselves. One of the examples of techniques used in both approaches is critical thinking. When thinking critically, individuals think at a higher level, use all their available resources to come up with a solution and use all their previously acquired skills. Both coachees in the coaching process and students in the critical pedagogy

approach are encouraged to challenge the status quo, be inquisitive and question anything that is objective.

According to Freire (1970), a relationship between a teacher and a student should be built on respect. He referred to the role of a teacher: “a teacher who learns”, and the role of a student: “a learner who teaches”. Freire (1996) later stated that change happens through a conversation - it is the dialogue that enables individuals to act in ways that result in optimal application of human potential. This also applies to any coaching relationship where a conversation - a dialogue between a coach and a coachee - is a must for the coaching process to occur, and it is always built on mutual respect (Browne, 2006). The quote from Freire (1970): “*only the dialogue, which requires critical thinking, is also capable of generating critical thinking. Without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication, there can be no true education*” also captures the essence of coaching.

Critical pedagogy pays particular attention to ways in which people create history, memories, and narratives that give them a sense of identity (Giroux, 1997). Giroux (1997) emphasized that it is important because it allows a deeper understanding of the differences in how students understand written texts they read, their expression and behavior in the school environment. Pedagogy - according to Giroux (1997) - as an element of cultural policy should pay special importance to the history, dreams and experiences that students bring with them to school. Such approach coincides with the client-centered premise of the coaching field. Coaches pay special attention to individual history, memories, experiences and narratives of their coachees.

Positive Education

As explained earlier, positive psychology is "*the study of the conditions and processes that contribute to the flourishing or optimal functioning of people, groups, and institutions*" (Gable & Haidt, 2005). The objective of positive psychology is therefore to "*understand, test, discover and promote the factors that allow individuals and communities to thrive*" (Hefferon &

Bonwell, 2011). It is "*the scientific study of ordinary people strengths and virtues*" and its focus is the development of *positivity* as an individual's mindset and attitude (Sheldon & King, 2001).

Positive education - a science directly linked to positive psychology - is described as "*education for both traditional skills and for happiness*" (Seligman *et al*, 2009). Green *et al.* (2011) describes positive education as "*applied positive psychology in education*". According to Corominas (2003), the act of educating positively happens when teachers try the following:

- explaining what actions have been taken,
- acknowledging that students may go through sensitive periods,
- motivating the students,
- creating positive cooperation,
- depending on the subconsciousness,
- motivating students to positive behavior out of their own will,
- foreseeing behaviors that should be stopped,
- building student's happiness and contentment,
- have an educational vision for students,
- support the self-esteem of students.

According to Seligman *et al.* (2009), positive education is a valid and reliable approach to increasing well-being in schools. The efficacy of teaching well-being skills have been supported by scientific research (Seligman *et al.*, 2009). Well-being is an important component of psychological health. School is a central institution in a lot of people's lives, it is paramount that it is also focused on enhancing psychological health. The goal of positive education is to attend to it, to create an environment fostering human flourishing and reduce mental health issues, like anxiety or depression (Furlong *et al*, 2014). On top of enhancing academic performance, positive education also aims to build well-being (Norish *et al*, 2013).

Positive education is therefore an education that combines the traditional approach as well as the one that targets happiness. As Seligman *et al.* (2009) point out, depression rates are higher, rise in life satisfaction level is low. According to Seligman *et al.* (2009), happiness and well-being can not only be taught, they both *should* be taught. Results from the scientific,

evidence-based literature indicate that well-being skills can be taught - i.e. positive emotions, resilience, engagement and meaning (Seligman *et al.*, 2009).

There is a correlation between well-being, an individual experiencing positive emotions and learning, which is the primary goal of traditional education. "*More well-being is synergistic with better learning. Increases in well-being are likely to produce increases in learning*" (Seligman *et al.*, 2009). Positive emotions create a broader attention span and boost creative thinking (Bolte *et al*., 2003; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Kuhl, 1983). Negative emotions, on the other hand, has a detrimental effect on the attention span, results in more critical thinking and more analytic processing (Bolte et al., 2003; Kuhl, 1983, 2000). Traditional educational institutions value critical thinking - as opposed to creative, although both are valuable and important. It is worth emphasizing that critical thinking will be better facilitated by negative emotions in the classroom rather than positive according to scientific studies.

It has been suggested that with all its benefits to individual psychological health and learning, well-being and happiness should be taught in school. Seligman *et al.* (2009) list a few reasons. Well-being is negatively correlated with depression, well-being has been shown to increase life satisfaction and happiness, and finally - well-being leads to better and deeper learning, allows the individual to open her mind and results in more creative thinking. Schools and universities, as institutions assisting individuals across an important part of their lives, have therefore a unique opportunity to try to enhance well-being. Students interact with other students and their teachers every day - the quality of their interactions are therefore paramount to their well-being and have therefore become at the center of well-being programmes based on the premise of positive education. Parents as well as teachers see well-being and well-being programs as a great opportunity and potentially a crucial aspect of education (Cohen, 2006).

Social Pedagogy

According to Kunowski (1981), pedagogy in its historical development went through various stages of development. The following branches of pedagogy fall under its scientific structure:

1. practical or empirical pedagogy examining the experience of educators and teachers;

2. descriptive or experimental pedagogy generalizing experience and verifying the laws governing the education and upbringing;
3. normative pedagogy examining the nature of individuals and their culture (based on philosophy, axiology, and theory of culture) and setting values, goals, ideals and norms compatible with this background - which educators should follow;
4. theoretical or general pedagogy, treated as the broadest area, covering the basis of empirical, experimental and normative pedagogy to create a uniform theory of education, objectively reproducing the educational reality as a whole.

It is assumed that pedagogy is a science that has to fulfill a cognitive function (examines educational reality), theoretical function (formulates laws or recommendations regarding upbringing, generalizes the results of studies in specific disciplines) and practical function (provides knowledge on how to support development of the individual through upbringing and education). The objective of pedagogy is learning about influences that are directly or indirectly exerted on individuals through the environment in which they live. One can say that learning the complex educational reality, which consists of moral, social, biological, mental, cultural, material and spiritual phenomena, ensures depth of pedagogy as a science (Kunowski, 1981).

In the most common perspective (Nowy leksykon PWN, 1998), social pedagogy is referred to as a branch of pedagogy with its focus on (1) the issues of environmental conditioning of care and educational processes and (2) analysis of environmental factors co-defining development of an individual in various stages of life. The idea behind pedagogy is therefore research-oriented, focused on processes shaping environmental conditions of upbringing and care, education, educational careers, educational barriers and school selection processes.

Radlińska (1961) clearly identified the subject of research when defining social pedagogy as a science. It is practical, developing at the intersection of biological and social sciences, ethics and cultural studies, theory and history of culture. Its multiple focal areas can be briefly described as the mutual relationship between the individual and the environment (family, school, associations and organizations, workplaces, other circles), the influence of living conditions and cultural circles on individuals in various phases of their life, the influence of people on ensuring

the existence of common values and tradition through their adoption and promotion (Radziewicz-Winnicki, 2008, Radlińska, 1961).

Understanding the impact of the environment on individuals is important in the studies and research of social educators. The assumptions of social pedagogy are that the person's development, upbringing and education is determined by the environment in which she lives. The influence of other individuals is not denied - social pedagogy agrees that genetics can determine to a large extent the somatic and physical type of an individual, the temperament type, ability to adapt, biological potential, personality traits, as well as one's own stimulated activity - for example internal motivation. However, the environment is considered to be a major determinant for the development of a person (Kawula, 2009).

The educational role of society, groups and organizations is also very important, and the goal of social pedagogy is to learn about the functioning of various institutions, how they pursue educational and upbringing goals, and how they impact individuals through mass media, cinema, recreational and sports facilities, etc (Marynowicz-Hetka, 2006). The sense of education - from the point of view of social pedagogy - is that the educator intends to bring the pupil to the highest levels of development that can be achieved. Education considered on the basis of social pedagogy is, first and foremost, a path enriching the pupil's experience through organized activity (cultural, educational, caring, social, free time). Such an activity helps in solving socio-educational problems occurring in one's environment, helps an individual become more self-sufficient and able to reach for social resources in order to get help (Pilch & Lepalczyk, 1995). Social pedagogy helps excluded individuals, socially helpless individuals, and those who are passive or disabled (Wieruszewska, 2002).

The practical aspects of social pedagogy are expressed in removing obstacles inhibiting individual development, by providing developmental stimuli, acknowledging individual achievements and teaching efficiency (Radlińska, 1961). In that sense social pedagogy crosses over with coaching. The social educator wanting to bring the pupil to the highest levels of development possible also mirrors the objective of the coaching approach in which the full potential of a client is being called for and nurtured.

Coaching as an Application of Innovation Policy in Social Pedagogy

Innovation policy has become one of the main drivers of the development of the knowledge-based economy. The innovation policy intends to implement a wide range of innovative solutions to social problems, an example of which would be inclusive innovations reducing social exclusion (Płatek, 2015). As mentioned before in the "*Developmental role of coaching and teaching*" section - according to the Lisbon Strategy (and Europe 2020 strategy), the strategic goal of the EU is to support the growth of a knowledge-based economy, as dynamic and competitive as possible at the same time, which secures more employment in "conditions of greater social cohesion" (Bachnik, 2006).

Innovation policy has been promoted for a long time in social sciences, including pedagogy. Pedagogical innovation appears to be an important element of the experience of the pedagogue-practitioner, whose objective is to introduce developmental changes, i.e. those that involve a transition from a current state towards a *better* state (Schulz, 1996). Innovative tools are widely utilized by the coaching profession. This increases the value of coaching as an approach from the point of view of social pedagogy, as the tools and techniques can be applied to improve the functioning of social institutions like schools and universities (Płatek, 2015).

The success of coaching is largely determined by the quality of client-coach relationship (Szot, 2013). The principles that a coach follows at work are: authenticity, acceptance, presence (here and now), partnership, and trust (Stankiewicz & Hejduk, 2013). As mentioned before, an important dimension of coaching is to provide emotional, cognitive and instrumental support, which aims to raise the level of knowledge to help modify the behavior. The role of the coach is to ask questions, build agreement, motivate, support in formulating the goal, support in the pursuit of the goal and process control (Stankiewicz & Hejduk, 2013).

The abovementioned skills to shape the right relationship and environment of trust are also features of an innovative educator, for whom it is also necessary to master the art of empathy, openness to others, listening skills, tolerance, authenticity, and to have a fairly high level of social and emotional intelligence (Szot, 2013). Motivating the individual towards self-fulfillment is one of the top priorities for both pedagogy and coaching, where fulfillment is

understood as the individual's innate desire to develop one's potential across one's knowledge, interests and skills (Kulesza, 2013).

Currently, the coaching strategies and techniques are used in many programs promoting social inclusion (Surzykiewicz, 2013). Social coaching has been more widely used when working with individuals affected by anxiety disorders, individuals who want to gain control and responsibility, improve relationships, professional situation and career, who suffer from distorted image of themselves or emotional problems. A lot of those issues like anxiety, distorted self-image, problems with goal setting and building healthy relationships appear every day at school and have been a challenge for educators as well as pedagogical approaches that can be applied (Szot, 2013).

Social coaching positively affects individual sense of agency, efficacy, performance and self-confidence across individual, professional and social relationships (Kulesza, 2013). Social coaching also strengthens the sense of meaning in life, increases motivation to take action to improve one's functioning within the society, which serves both individual and collective good (Stankiewicz & Hejduk, 2013). In that sense, coaching certainly fulfills the assumptions and the principles of innovation policy, which utilizes tools, techniques and strategies of *inclusive innovations* in order to strengthen social and intellectual capital and address the problems of social exclusion.

Coaching as an approach has therefore been linked with social pedagogy (Surzykiewicz, 2013). Areas of social work are in need of increasing effectiveness while working with people affected by social exclusion, personal and family problems, beneficial adaptive behaviors, self-realization and optimization of their functioning in social life. Institutions responsible for social work, as well as educational institutions should therefore strive to strengthen the intellectual potential of their staff and motivate them to enhance their coaching-related skills and improve qualifications (Surzykiewicz, 2013). Coaching can be therefore perceived as a pedagogical innovation, and a new, innovative strategy or technique used in many pedagogical situations that help enhance the quality of education.

Coaching as an Innovation in Education

The use of the coaching approach in an education system is an innovation. Coaching in education is understood as accompanying students in their development throughout their education. Effective education incorporating coaching as a method requires participants to form a partnership and to have an in-depth knowledge of their environment as well as individual and social challenges. According to Brzeziński (2014), the development of the student in such partnership is based on personal transformation through direct, long-term cooperation with the teacher (coach).

In the coaching process, the responsibility for the results falls on the student - the teacher (coach) is mainly providing support. It is the coach who helps, supports and challenges the student. The relationship is reciprocal and requires equal involvement of both the student and the teacher. In the learning process the relationship is one-way, or "top-down" coming from teacher to student (Brzeziński, 2014). The presentation of theoretical content should therefore always be followed by a discussion enabling the student to be involved in the process of gaining knowledge and seeking practical values and applications (Stankiewicz & Łychmus, 2009).

Coaching is a process aimed at both ad hoc problem solving and long-term development of an individual. The basic tool of this development is a very specific, structured conversation, in which the problem is thoroughly analyzed and split into smaller elements, and next the solution for that problem is being discussed and designed. The key idea is that the student (client) is the first one to diagnose the problem and determine how to solve it. With the support of a teacher (coach), the student learns to independently analyze her actions and look for solutions that will eliminate similar problems in the future (Brzeziński, 2014). The teacher's (coach's) task is to monitor the extent to which the issues raised are relevant to the student's goals. At every stage, the teacher (coach) should encourage the student (coachee) to take responsibility for the choices she made by emphasizing decisions taken and potential consequences of such actions that might occur in the future (Stankiewicz &, Łychmus, 2009).

Coaching focuses on the "here and now" principle and on what *can* be done in every situation rather than what *cannot* be done. Unlike a traditional training approach focused on providing knowledge and solutions, coaching focuses on implementing changes in one's personal and professional life. This process covers three main areas of reflection and action: (1) change analysis (where is change taking place, what needs to be done, what resources are needed, etc), (2) transfer of knowledge necessary to apply adjustments and changes, (3) practical testing enabling consolidation of these changes (Łychmus, 2010). One of the examples of coaching models used in education is a *Knowledge-based Coaching Model* (Łychmus, 2010).

This model is based on 4 stages: (1) problem analysis, (2) designing changes, (3) action and control, (4) application. Stage 1 requires the following steps: describing a current situation (*How is it now?*), identifying a desired situation (*How should it be like?*), identifying whether or not a growth/development is required (*Should I pursue a desired situation?*) and lastly analyzing why a current situation occurred the way it did (*Why things are the way they are?*). Stage 2 requires the following steps: planning individual development and choosing the right strategies and techniques (*How do we get to the desired state?*), sharing theoretical knowledge with the coachee (*How/what are things involved in the discussed scenario?*), revealing that learning has been useful (*How can this be applied?*). Stage 3 requires the following steps: application of new knowledge (*How do I apply what I just learned?*), verifying and correcting the application of new knowledge (*What needs to be adjusted?*). Last stage requires the following steps: observation (*How does it work in practice?*), consolidating results (*This is the right way to go!*) and confirmation that the desired end result has been achieved (*This is it!*).

The *Knowledge-based Coaching Model* goes beyond the individual approach towards working with students. It shows that the introduction of coaching methods and techniques as a supplement to the basic skills of educators can bring new quality in education.

Formative assessment

Formative assessment involves a continuous way of formal and informal assessment procedures and various checks conducted by teachers during the teaching and learning process (Jeri, 2018). The objective is to allow for modification and adjustment of teaching and learning

techniques and activities that would allow for improved student attainment (Crooks, 2001). Formative assessment allows teachers to monitor their student's learning process and check for the effectiveness of their teaching methods. *Formative* teaching practice implies that the evidence about student's attainments is collected, interpreted and utilized in the process of designing next steps for the student (Black & William, 2009). A feedback loop is a paramount component of formative assessment method.

Harlen and James (1997) mention the following when evaluating formative assessment: (1) it is positive in intent and promotes learning - it can therefore be interpreted as part of teaching; (2) it is student-centered in a sense that it takes into consideration each student's progress, their individual effort invested in learning and other individual aspects of their learning process; (3) it requires that a student is a central part of the learning process, they need to be involved and active in order to learn their strengths, weaknesses and how to utilize them or learn from them to make progress.

Results obtained in evidence-based scientific research on formative assessment has shown that it has powerful and lasting effects on student learning: significant learning improvements have been noticed across all knowledge areas, skill types and across all levels of education (Black & William, 1998). Formative assessment has also been "*recognized as one of the most powerful ways to enhance student motivation*" (Cauley & McMillan, 2010). Motivation is greater because: (1) students have stronger belief in their capability to learn, (2) the progress towards the set goals is emphasized at every step, (3) learning successes are contributed to individual efforts and skills, (4) individual cognitive abilities and strategies improving understanding are evaluated and their use encouraged (McMillan & Hearn, 2008).

Skills required from teachers in the formative assessment process cover many skills used by coaches in their coaching practice. During the formative assessment process, the teacher needs to clarify the learning objectives and the success criteria (Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). This mirrors the coaching second competency - establishing the coaching agreement (ICF, 2019b). Both the teacher and the coach in the above cases need to be clear what will be achieved

and how will the student/coachee know when the goal was achieved. The difference, though, is that in coaching - the agenda comes from the coachee, not the coach.

During the formative assessment process, the teacher needs to inspire productive classroom discussions and verify student's understanding of the topic (Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). In a similar way, the coach needs to explore the coachee's understanding of who they are and what they want to achieve - the coach can therefore use very similar tools and techniques while exercising the coaching competencies *active listening* and *powerful questioning* (ICF, 2019b). The teacher also provides feedback to their students as part of the formative assessment process, and inspires students to "own" their own learning (Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). *Coaching presence and direct communication* (ICF, 2019b) are related to such teacher's skills in the coaching process.

One of many useful techniques used in formative assessment - similar as in coaching - is questioning. It is a central part of the learning process and emphasizes asking the *right* type of questions (in coaching: *powerful questions*). Such questions should be thought provoking, promote discussion and reflection - this way they help students learn and complete their learning objectives (William, 2017). Coaches use powerful questioning to deepen their understanding of the coachee's perspective, evoke coachee's new discovery or insight, or create new learning (ICF, 2019b).

6.4 Coaching vs Educating - Main Differences

There are many aspects of both coaching and educating that make these two approaches very similar. There are also many differences, however, that make these approaches distinct and unique (Janes *et al.*, 2016). *Education* is a process through which intellectual, social and moral instructions are being provided to a learner (Janes *et al.*, 2016). Educating in the main goal of an educator - it is passing on knowledge to students while following the administrative guidelines of a given schooling system (Mascolo, 2009). The educators have a large influence on their students' learning experience and their motivation through the way they interact with students, how they build relationships and how they teach. How educators teach and conduct themselves can therefore directly impact their students' success (Mascolo, 2009).

The role of the coach according to the coaching framework is to partner with individuals, facilitate the achievement of their goals and support them in maximizing their potential (Whitmore, 1992). Coaching sessions generally focus on a chosen task, its progress, and occasionally providing performance suggestions on how to approach the task more efficiently. Coaching is not instructing though - the coach does not provide specific instructions on what to do and how to approach it (Whitmore *et al.*, 2007). Coaches intend to always share their knowledge in a new way with each individual, perceive situations from new angles and incorporate new perspectives into every situation at hand to create the best learning experience for the coachee. Such an approach is necessary to assure that the right conditions and the right learning environment is created to keep the individuals motivated while they work towards achieving their goals (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004).

The role of a coach differs from the role of an educator also in how much expert knowledge is required from the coach, how that knowledge is being transferred and what feedback mechanisms are being utilized to assure growth and development of the individual. Educators value cognition and place an emphasis on theoretical foundations while passing on knowledge (Drewe, 2000). Coaches focus on other domains when passing knowledge, which may include psychosocial skills, learning a skill by doing, drawing from one's own past experience. Coaches promote learning over lecturing (Mascolo, 2009). Coaches provide coachee-specific, individualized feedback on a wide array of areas: knowledge, experience, skills or attitudes (Janes *et al.*, 2016). In a learner's education process, an educator is perceived as a central figure, controlling the environment of the classroom and the learner's role and position in such an environment, without taking the learner's preferences into account (Mascolo, 2009). A coach on the contrary, welcomes all input from the coachee.

Coaching also differs from an instructional classroom approach in that it is focused on building a relationship with the coachee, involving in an authentic dialogue and fostering partnership (Jameson, 2002). Coaches encourage people they work with to engage in their own learning, growth, development and performance improvement. Coaching creates space for meta-cognitive reflection, action and experimentation through which individuals identify the

obstacles, develop plans to overcome them and perform more effectively. It is a different approach from the one that requires learners to receive and absorb knowledge and instructions (Von Glasersfeld, 1995; Wesselink *et al*., 2007; Ketelaar *et al*., 2009).

Unlike education models, coaching models are often developed without a formal and theoretical foundation (Wang & Millward, 2014). In their practice, coaches use strategies that are creative and informal but not theoretically grounded to help coachee achieve their individual goals and improve performance - often challenging coachees to exceed a performance level that they would set for themselves if left to their own devices. Coaching may be *part* of a training program, for example in a workplace delivered learning or training setting (Ladegård, 2011). Coaching and education also differ in how the development areas are being recognized. Learning areas in a classroom setting are identified through a classroom learning program, tutorial, or other educational program. Coaching sessions, on the other hand, allow coachees to uncover specific, individual developmental areas and aspects of learning that are beneficial for them to develop and learn through the coaching sessions (Wang & Millward, 2014).

PART II: Research methodology

Part II of the study gives a thorough walkthrough of the research methodology: research design is explained in Chapter 1 including definitions, research problems, hypotheses, variables and indicators. Research methods, techniques and tools are characterized in detail in Chapter 2. This chapter also explains how data were collected. The empirical study design is presented in Chapter 3. Part II ends with a detailed overview of how data collected in this study has been processed and which statistical procedures have been applied (Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 1. Research design

This chapter discusses theoretical assumptions, research aim and subject, main research problems as well as sub-problems, main hypotheses as well as sub-hypotheses. At the end the variables and indicators are introduced and summarized in a table.

1.1 Theoretical assumptions

Based on the analysis of current literature of the subject, the following definitions were assumed in this study.

Coaching *is a long-term efficient relationship that allows clients to maximize their potential.*

This definition has been derived from scientific literature through a process of integrative literature review. The following characteristics have been deemed essential to fully define coaching: (1) relationship - a required connection in a coaching process between the coaches and their clients; (2) efficient - guaranteeing the highest possible output (client's performance) given the input (for example effort, time or other resources, both coming from the coach as well as the client); (3) maximized the client's potential: clients are able to achieve better results while in a coaching process, compared to what they could have achieved on their own; (4) long-term - a coaching process requires time for changes to take place.[1]

[1] See: Jarosz (2016) for full derivation of this definition.

Psychoeducation is *an educative process targeted at enhancing awareness and proactivity of the clients, empowering them to cope with challenges, learning healthy behaviors and attitudes by providing them with adequate tools, techniques and strategies.* This definition is based on the definition by Colom (2011), however, it also emphasizes the necessity of learning *healthy* behaviors and *healthy* attitudes, amongst fundamental aspects of psychoeducation.

Emotional Intelligence *involves the ability to understand, express and learn from emotions; the ability to regulate emotions to promote one's growth; and the ability to evaluate when to develop one's emotional component*. This definition is based on Mayer and Salovey (1997), however, it adds the element of individuals working consciously on improving certain components of emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence consists of the following dimensions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990):

1. Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self.
   This dimension relates to the individual's ability to understand and assess their deep emotions and be able to express these emotions naturally. People who are skilled in this area are able to sense and acknowledge their deep emotions before most people.
2. Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others.
   The ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others. People who are skilled in this area are much more sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
3. Regulation of one's own emotions.
   The ability to regulate one's own emotions. This ability enables a quicker recovery from psychological distress.
4. Use of emotions to facilitate performance.
   The ability of individuals to direct their emotions towards constructive activities and individual (personal or professional) performance.

Well-being is defined as a *dynamic state individuals are at when they reach an optimal psychological experience and functioning or are striving to achieve that*. This definition is based on Ryan and Deci (2001), however, it adds the dynamic component of individuals working consciously to put themselves in the well-being state. There are 6 components that together build

psychological well-being (Ryff, 1995):

1. autonomy - the ability to make and follow one's own decisions and resist social pressures
2. purpose in life - the belief that one's life has purpose and meaning
3. positive relationships with others - the ability to have trusting, warm, good and satisfying relationships with others
4. personal growth - the individual's perception of growing and developing as a person as well as being open to new experiences
5. environmental mastery - the ability to effectively manage one's life and the one's immediate surroundings
6. self acceptance - the ability positively evaluate oneself and the past

1.2 Research aim and subject

According to Guziuk (2004), the first stage in any research procedure is to determine the purpose of the study: what is the researcher aiming at and what does she/he wants to achieve as an outcome of the study. Defining the purpose of the study is equivalent to determining why a particular research is undertaken and what is the value of the results. The aim of this research was both cognitive, empirical and verificational.

The objective of cognitive approach is to describe, explain and predict research based on pedagogical phenomena (Gnitecki, 1995). The *cognitive aim* of this study was to diagnose and learn about the state of emotional intelligence and well-being amongst adults at an early stage of their career (24-35), diagnose the current state, and recognize and describe the value that coaching can bring to enhance both emotional intelligence as well as well-being. The *empirical aim* is to generate findings with data collected from observation that was used to test research hypotheses (Goodwin, 2005). With *verification aim* in mind, the research attempts to check the effects of the solutions applied. In the verification studies, only the subject of the study is known - not the outcomes or results. When the aim of the study is diagnostic, the objective is to diagnose an event or a specific state of affairs. We know the symptoms and the effects - and we search for their causes, sources, circumstances and conditions (Pilch & Baumann, 2001).

An essential condition for the implementation of the research aim adopted by the researcher is to determine and specify the subject of the research (Guziuk, 2004). The subject of the study was *the role of coaching in developing emotional intelligence and well-being of adults at an early stage of their career (24-35 years), college or university graduates, currently in the workforce*.

Based on the research questions, the study focused on a specific research aim. The general empirical objective of this research was to determine whether there is a significant relationship between coaching and the different emotional intelligence abilities and also well-being and its components. Furthermore, the aim was to pinpoint the specific EI abilities and well-being components that are most significantly impacted in the coaching process. The purpose of the study was also to analyze the psychoeducational role of coaching that would lead to observed changes.

Biographical data - age and gender - were also gathered for the purpose of this study and used for the analysis. The limitations were discussed as well as recommendations made for future research in this field.

1.3 Problem statement.

A research problem is a question, which is answered by conducting research to address this question (Palka, 2006). There is an emerging body of empirical research, which suggests various benefits of coaching - coachees build better relationships, have better work-related outcomes, contribute more to their community, and have better mental and physical health (Ellis, 1998; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006; Wood *et al.*, 2008). There is also growing evidence that coaching can enhance emotional intelligence and well-being (Green *et al.,* 2006; Neale *et al.*, 2009). The objective of this study was to analyze the role of coaching as an EI enhancing approach and a well-being intervention, with specific focus on psychoeducational aspect.

The following main problem (MP) has been formulated for this study:

(MP) Does coaching impact emotional intelligence and well-being?

Accordingly, the following diagnostic subproblems (DSP 1-14) have been formulated for this study:

(DSP 1) What is the level of emotional intelligence?
(DSP 2) What is the level of self-emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability)?
(DSP 3) What is the level of others' emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability)?
(DSP 4) What is the level of use of emotion (emotional intelligence ability)?
(DSP 5) What is the level of regulation of emotion (emotional intelligence ability)?
(DSP 6) What is the level of well-being?
(DSP 7) What is the level of personal growth (well-being component)?
(DSP 8) What is the level of autonomy (well-being component)?
(DSP 9) What is the level of self-acceptance (well-being component)?
(DSP 10) What is the level of life purpose (well-being component)?
(DSP 11) What is the level of positive relatedness (well-being component)?
(DSP 12) What is the level of environmental mastery (well-being component)?

The following exploratory subproblems (SP 1-14) have been formulated for this study:

(SP 1) Does coaching impact self-emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability)?
(SP 2) Does coaching impact others' emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability)?
(SP 3) Does coaching impact use of emotion (emotional intelligence ability)?
(SP 4) Does coaching impact regulation of emotion (emotional intelligence ability)?
(SP 5) Does coaching impact personal growth (well-being component)?
(SP 6) Does coaching impact autonomy (well-being component)?
(SP 7) Does coaching impact self-acceptance (well-being component)?
(SP 8) Does coaching impact life purpose (well-being component)?
(SP 9) Does coaching impact positive relatedness (well-being component)?
(SP 10) Does coaching impact environmental mastery (well-being component)?
(SP 11) Does age differentiate the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence?
(SP 12) Does age differentiate the impact of coaching on well-being?
(SP 13) Does gender differentiate the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence?

(SP 14) Does gender differentiate the impact of coaching on well-being?

1.4 Hypotheses

The following main hypothesis (MH) has been formulated for this study given the main problem (MP) stated above:

(MH) Participants of the study will report a statistically significant correlation between coaching and respectively: (1) emotional intelligence level and (2) the level of well-being.

Accordingly, the following sub-hypotheses (SH 1-14) have been formulated for this study given the subproblems (SP 1-14) listed above:

(SH 1) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of self-emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability).

(SH 2) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of others' emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability).

(SH 3) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of use of emotion (emotional intelligence ability).

(SH 4) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of regulation of emotion (emotional intelligence ability).

(SH 5) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of personal growth (well-being component).

(SH 6) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of autonomy (well-being component).

(SH 7) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of self-acceptance (well-being component).

(SH 8) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of life purpose (well-being component).

(SH 9) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of positive relatedness (well-being component).

(SH 10) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of environmental mastery (well-being component).

(SH 11) Age will differentiate the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence level.

(SH 12) Age will differentiate the impact of coaching on the level of well-being.

(SH 13) Gender will differentiate the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence level.

(SH 14) Gender will differentiate the impact of coaching on the level of well-being.

1.5 Variables & Indicators

In this study the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable was analyzed. The dependent variable is the variable that is being measured, and the assumption is that the change in an independent variable is a consequence of the change in the independent variable being studied (Mouton & Marais, 1992). In this study, the application of coaching is the independent variable and dependent variables are: emotional intelligence and well-being. EI has the following dimensions: self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, regulation of emotion. Well-being has the following dimensions: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, self-acceptance. There are two moderators in this study: age and gender (both qualitative). See Chart 1 below.

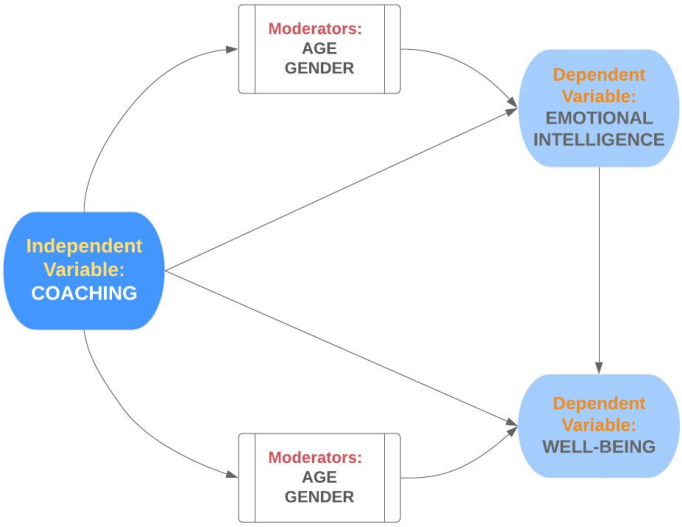

Chart 1. Variables: dependence diagram.

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the independent variable (coaching) is significantly positively related to the dependent variables (EI and well-being) across all dimensions. The numerical values of the dependent variables were measured with the indicators. An indicator refers to numerical information about a variable that is being measured. It may refer to one or more variables and the pieces of information may be gathered by one or more questions on a questionnaire (Ross & Postlethwaite, 1992). In this study indicators were numerical values from the questionnaires used to take measurements of dependent variables and their dimensions (The Scales of Psychological Well-Being and Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale). The variables and indicators have been summarized in Table 2 below.

Variables	Symbols	Dimensions	Indicators
coaching	x		0-1
age	x_1		2 ranges: (25-29) or (30-35)
gender	x_2		2 values:

			male, female
well-being	y_1	autonomy environmental mastery personal growth positive relations with others purpose in life self-acceptance	numerical values from the Scales of Psychological Well-Being
emotional intelligence	y_2	self-emotion appraisal others' emotion appraisal use of emotion regulation of emotion	numerical values from the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

Table 2. Variables & indicators overview.

CHAPTER 2. Research methods, techniques and tools

This chapter discusses research methods and techniques, and the reason why both quantitative and qualitative methods were applied. At the end the research tools are introduced and the validity and reliability of questionnaires explained in detail.

2.1 Research methods

Both research methods and research techniques describe ways and rules of conducting research to solve a research problem. Research methods are rather generally recommended ways to solve a research problem whereas research techniques refer to more specific ways of investigating the problem, which may be specific to a given research field or even research problem (Nowak, 2008). A research method refers to repetitive procedures and sets of procedures used to solve problems of varying degrees of generality. The characteristics of the research methods used can be narrow or broad, focused only on the most general outlines, or even referring to secondary details (Nowak, 2008). Lack of clear difference between research methods and research techniques in social science research has been a subject of discussion (Brzeziński, 2004).

The following research methods were used in this study: quasi-experiment and survey method. Quasi-experiment method assumes that only the dependent variables are being manipulated. The independent variables are being identified *ex post*, however, they are not controlled in the quasi-experiment (Łobocki, 2003). Survey method in pedagogical research refers to sampling of individuals from a population and associated research techniques describing data collection procedure. Survey method may include instruments (like questionnaires), instructions regarding their construction (for example whether the questionnaire should have one or more questions or whether the questions need to be open- or closed-ended), and methods for improving sampling or data collection procedure (Shaughnessy, 2011).

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used for this study. According to Nowak (2008, p. 47), research methods should be chosen adequately to the subject of the study. The

basic premise of such an approach is that it allows for a more complete utilization of data than could be achieved by exclusively quantitative or qualitative data collection and analysis.

2.2 Research techniques

Research techniques play an important role in the pedagogical research methodology. Research techniques are practical activities indicated by guidelines, which allow to obtain optimally verifiable information, opinions and facts. Research technique is a way to collect materials and sources for research (Pilch, 1998). Some of the research techniques are: content analysis, examination of documents and materials, observation, diagnostic interview, survey, experiment, projection techniques, statistical techniques (Krajewski, 2006).

A survey is an important research technique in social sciences, in particular in pedagogy. It is a technique of gathering information where participants are required to fill out (typically highly standardized) questionnaires. The presence of the interviewer is not necessary. A survey is a collection of specially formulated questions contained in the so called questionnaire to which the respondent should provide an answer. Surveys are particularly useful in pedagogical research as they allow the researcher to learn about the characteristics of the community, gather information about phenomena, or opinions about events (Krajewski, 2006). Their role is very important, especially at the initial stage of research. Results collected using surveys require comparison with the materials gathered using other research methods. Survey is considered a technique for collecting quantitative data, and to a lesser extent - qualitative data (Krajewski, 2006).

An experiment is a popular research technique which allows to efficiently test and verify research hypotheses (Brzeziński, 2004). According to Kerlinger (1986), an experiment is a kind of research, in which the researcher directly manipulates and controls one or more independent variables to test cause-and-effect relationship between dependent and independent variables. In an experimental study, the researcher must (1) determine the values or categories of an independent variable(s) to be compared, (2) select a sample group to be tested, (3) apply procedures according to which subjects are assigned individual values or categories of the independent variable, (4) specify what type of observation or measurement should be carried out

for each subject (Ferguson & Takane, 1989). Brzeziński (2004) proposed a more holistic description of an experiential model. The objective of an experiment research technique is to verify a hypothesis about the relationship between dependent variable(s) and independent variable(s). The following needs to take place:

(a) manipulation of at least one of the independent variables,

(b) while controlling other variables, moderators and confounders that may impact the dependent variable,

(c) and measuring the change of a dependent variable(s), caused by the intended manipulation of the independent variable(s).

In this research study, as the chosen method was a quasi-experiment, the independent variable has not been manipulated. The dependent variables have been measured at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. The limitation of such an approach is that there is no reference value for the dependent variable. Because coaching is an individual approach and all coaching interventions involve only one coachee at a time, the quasi-experiment was approached on an individual, case by case basis in this study.

2.3 Research tools

Research tools are used to implement a chosen research technique or method (Krajewski, 2006). The study used the following research tools: structured questionnaires, unstructured interviews and analysis of the gathered content. Questionnaires and interviews may be used together in research (e.g., Brookhart & Durkin, 2003). Questionnaires help investigate patterns, and qualitative interview data can help gain more in-depth insight about participants, their attitudes, thoughts and behavior (Lai & Waltman, 2008). A questionnaire is irreplaceable in pedagogical research - it serves as a tool for learning about the characteristics of the community, facts, opinions, and numerical data (Bauman & Pilch, 2001, p.96). An interview serves mainly to get to know the facts, opinions and attitudes of a given community. The content obtained through an interview also allows to analyze the subject in more depth in a subsequent stage (Bauman & Pilch, 2001, p.92).

Interview is considered the most common way of collecting data for qualitative research. Oakley (1998) suggests that qualitative interview allows to record, achieve, and challenge practices and standards. It has been pointed out that all interviews have some sort of structure and that most of the interviews for qualitative research are either semi-structured, or in-depth (Jamshed, 2014). Fully unstructured interviews are used in long-term field work, in which the respondents can express themselves at their own pace (Corbin & Morse, 2003).

Unstructured interview allows to collect data through observation and at the same time the person conducting the interviews can involve themselves with the participants of the study. Such interview style is more of a "controlled" conversation rather than an actual interview (Jamshed, 2014). It is still "controlled" by the interviewer as the in-depth information is being gathered without a pre-planned set of questions (Jamshed, 2014).

Questionnaires in general are viewed as an objective research tool. Questionnaires can produce results that can be easily generalized because of the typically large sample sizes. The risks faced by the quality of research when using a questionnaire include: faulty questionnaire design, biased wording, misunderstanding, sampling error, respondent unreliability, errors in processing or statistical analysis, and wrong interpretation of results (Bryman, 2008).

Neither unstructured questionnaires or questionnaires are neutral tools. Both may involve personal interaction or personal bias which leads to compromised or contextually based results (Fontana & Frey 2000). Interviews provide contexts, interviewer may elaborate on the context, interviewee may ask for clarification, which may lead to bringing in a personal perception by the interviewer and altered responses of the interviewees - as they respond in different ways depending on the situation or social context (Richman, Keisler, Weisband, & Drasgow, 1999). Most qualitative studies, including this one, have relatively small sample sizes, which generates difficulty while trying to replicate or generalize the results (Bryman, 2008).

Questionnaires used in the study

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) (Appendix A) is used to measure psychological well-being by providing an overview of psychiatric symptoms and their intensity (Derogatis & Spencer, 1982). The BSI measures: depression, anxiety, phobic anxiety, hostility, somatization, obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism (nine primary symptom dimensions). Respondents are asked to evaluate to what extent have they experienced the symptoms - such as nervousness for example - in the past 7 days. The Global Severity Index, is then computed by summing all the responses submitted by the participant and dividing by the total number of items on the questionnaire.

BSI has been used for inclusion/exclusion criteria to identify healthy individuals and those for whom a clinical intervention would be a better approach. The cutoff score suggested by BSI manual is 63 points - i.e. any score above 63 implies a high level of psychological distress.

Scales of psychological well-being (Ryff)

The Scales of Psychological Well-Being (Appendix B) measure proposed by Ryff (1989) has 42 questions asked across six subscales: autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relationships with others, purpose in life, personal growth and self-acceptance. The scales are theoretically grounded and have been validated through research studies (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Appendix C) is the 16-item questionnaire developed by Wong and Law (2002). WLEIS is designed to capture four aspects of EI: appraisal of one's own emotions, appraisal of emotions in others, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion. All items of the questionnaire are positively worded and direct (e.g., “I have a good understanding of my own emotions” or “I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others”). Participants respond using a 7-point (1-7) Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Responses are summed across subscales to give partial and overall scores with higher scores indicating higher EI.

Reliability and validity of used tools

To ensure the reliability and validity of the study, both EI and well-being were measured using valid and reliable questionnaires - Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Law *et al.*, 2004) and The Scales of Psychological Well-Being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). To ensure the statistical significance of the correlation results, the probability value $p=\leq 0,05$ (at 95%) was assumed.

Ethical research principles

The participants of this empirical research were provided with an explanation of the purpose of the study, the plan of the coaching program and the use of the results. To ensure that the research adheres to ethical research principles, all the participants were required to give their verbal or written consent.

CHAPTER 3. The empirical study design

This chapter characterizes the empirical study design in detail including: the design of the experiment itself, sampling design, participants of the study, sampling technique, sample characteristics, and inclusion/exclusion criteria. At the end the actual sampling and experiment procedure is explained in detail.

3.1 Experiment design

1. Diagnostic Phase:
    a. Diagnostic surveys were distributed to measure the levels of emotional intelligence and well-being in a large population. The general population was 300 adults at an early stage of their career - all employees of the technical industry. Those will be the *Scales of psychological well-being* and *Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale* questionnaires. The aim was to diagnose the level of EI and well-being in a large population for baseline.
2. Exploration and Verification Phase:
    a. The experiment group was recruited (participant group size was 20).
    b. The levels of the dependent variables of the participants were measured and compared against baseline levels of the population.
    c. The experiment lasted a total of 10 weeks and comprised of 10 coaching sessions once every week or every two weeks and psychoeducation of the participants. Duration of each session: 30-40 minutes.
    d. The dependent variables of the sample were measured *ex post* and compared with *ex ante* levels and baseline levels of the population.
    e. The impact of the independent variable (coaching) on the dependent variables (emotional intelligence and well-being) was verified using statistical procedures.

3.2 Sampling design

The objective of the sampling procedure is to select a fraction of the elements in a population, and once that is selected, draw conclusions about the entire population based on the

information obtained (Cooper & Emory, 1995). Sampling design describes: (1) the target population and (2) the sampling methods to be used.

3.3 Participants

Sample for the study was selected from 200 employees of a technical industry startup in Barcelona - all adults at an early stage of their career (24-35 years old). It has been suggested that university students tend to display low stress tolerance, poor emotional management skills and have difficulties adjusting to changes (Li *et al*., 2012). For this reason, this research study aimed to capture changes in EI and well-being that occur in a population at a later stage - during early work years when the transitional phase between adolescence and adulthood has ended. Those changes may be reflected in the population daily lives, social interactions or otherwise individually defined important areas of life.

3.4 Sampling technique

A nonprobability availability sample was used to select the participants for the study, specifically - convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is a method which includes individuals who are available and therefore the sample selected is based on convenience (Christensen, 1994). Calling for volunteers or using university students in pedagogical research would be 2 examples of convenience sampling (Trochim, 2002).

A nonprobability convenience sample was used in this study to select volunteers for the experiment group - all the participants who were easily accessible were asked to participate.

3.5 Sample characteristics

Volunteers were recruited amongst 200 employees of a technical industry startup in Barcelona - and were all adults at an early stage of their career (24-35). Final participants needed to pass inclusion criteria. Participants of this study are citizens of various countries, with various personal identity, social identity, cultural background, and professional experience.

3.6 Inclusion & exclusion criteria

Coaching is aimed at non-clinical populations, coachees though are not immune to distress. Psychological distress may occur at any moment in time during the period when a coachee is undergoing coaching. Exclusion criteria were based on the BSI questionnaire - any score exceeding 63 points was indicative of exclusion from the study.

3.7 Procedure

1. Send out diagnostic surveys to measure the levels of emotional intelligence and well-being in a large population.
2. Send out a survey to employees of a technical industry startup to gather the 1st pool of volunteers for pre-screening.
3. Volunteers fill out the BSI questionnaire to find out their eligibility.
4. Qualified participants sign a letter of consent.
5. Run a 10 session Coaching Program constituting the core of empirical research (Appendix D).
6. Gather and analyze results.

CHAPTER 4. Data processing

This short chapter describes how collected data have been processed. The normality of the distributions was assessed with the *z*-score, the main hypothesis was tested using a paired *t*-tests and Pearson correlation coefficient statistical analysis was applied to determine the correlation between the variables.

The normality of the distributions of EI and its subscales as well as well-being and its subscales pre- and post-coaching were assessed using *z*-scores formed by dividing skewness by the standard error of skewness. A z-test can be any statistical test where the null hypothesis states that the distribution of the test statistic can be approximated by a normal distribution. A z-score within +/- 1.96 is indicative of a normal distribution (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995).

Main hypothesis was tested using a paired *t*-tests to compare the pre-coaching and post-coaching emotional intelligence subscales and total scores as well as pre- and post-coaching well-being subscales. Paired *t*-tests consist of a sample that has matched pairs of similar data points collected for the elements of the sets, or one set where data points have been collected twice (David & Gunnink, 1997). It was hypothesized that the impact of coaching on well-being and emotional intelligence differs depending on the age and gender of the participants (as per diagram depicted in Chart 1). Since variance in EI and well-being level was theorized to result from variance in application of coaching and extraneous sources, two series of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare respondents by gender and age.

In order to analyse collected data, Pearson correlation coefficient statistical analysis was applied to determine the correlation between (1) coaching and EI level and traits as well as (2) coaching and well-being level and its components, and evaluate the statistical significance of these relationships. A Pearson correlation coefficient is a number that describes the extent to which two variables are related, and the extent to which variations in one variable relate to variations in the other variable (Fruchter & Guiford, 1978).

PART III: Research results and findings

Part III of the study gives a thorough walkthrough of the research results and findings: the empirical study is explained in Chapter 1. The results of the quantitative data analysis are discussed in Chapter 2. This includes: demographics and descriptive statistics, verification of the research problems of the study as well as hypotheses and sub-hypotheses. Chapter 3 focuses on the results of the qualitative analysis: sample characteristics are shared, details of the coaching sessions are discussed, and results of the unstructured as well as semi-structured interviews are described. Part III ends with a discussion of findings: the evaluation of the coaching program and a look at the psychoeducational role of coaching (Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 1. The empirical study: description

The following procedure was followed throughout the duration of the experiment:

1. Diagnostic Phase (March, 2019):
    a. Diagnostic surveys - *Scales of psychological well-being* and *Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale* questionnaires - were distributed amongst employees of a technical industry to measure levels of Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being in a large population and collect baselines. Both questionnaires were answered by 300 respondents - all employees of the technical industry. The respondents were citizens of various countries, with various personal identity, social identity, cultural background, and professional experience.
2. Recruiting the Experiment Group (March, 2019):
    a. Information asking for volunteers for the Coaching Program has been sent to employees of a technical industry startup in Barcelona. The message had the Information Sheet (Appendix E) and the details of the 10 Sessions Coaching Program (Appendix D) documents attached.
    b. Each of the volunteers who expressed their interest needed to answer the BSI questionnaire and score below 63 points to meet the inclusion criteria for the experiment group.

c. 20 participants were selected to form the Experiment Group.
d. All participants signed a Consent Form (Appendix F) and the Coaching & Confidentiality Agreement (Appendix G).

3. Exploration and Verification Phase (March-July, 2019):
    a. Levels of Emotional Intelligence and Well-being of the experiment participants were measured and compared against baseline levels of the population.
    b. Each of the volunteers participated in the Coaching Program of 10 coaching sessions. Coaching sessions (40-60 minutes long) were held once every week or once every 2 weeks on some occasions. The participants were also being educated on topics related to Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being in between coaching sessions (based on psychoeducational materials available in the *Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Handbook*).
    c. Levels of Emotional Intelligence and Well-being of the experiment participants were measured upon completion of the Coaching Program and compared against *ex ante* levels as well as baseline levels of the general population.
4. Data Gathering and Analysis (March-September, 2019).

CHAPTER 2. Quantitative data analysis

This chapter characterizes the results of the quantitative data analysis: demographics (sample and general population) and descriptive statistics (of well-being and its dimensions and emotional intelligence and its dimensions), verification of the research problems of the study as well as hypotheses and sub-hypotheses. All results have been presented in tables and additionally discussed in details below.

2.1 Demographics and descriptive statistics

Sample and general population demographics

A total of 20 individuals participated in the study (the general population for this study was 300 employees of the technical industry). Age and gender of the experiment group are summarized in Table 3 (age and gender of the general population are summarized in Table 4). The sample was evenly divided by age and the majority (70%) were female.

		Frequency	Percent
Age			
	24-29 years	10	50
	30-35 years	10	50
Gender			
	Male	6	30
	Female	14	70

Table 3. Sample demographics.

		Frequency	Percent
Age			
	24-29 years	135	45
	30-35 years	165	55
Gender			
	Male	177	59
	Female	123	41

Table 4. General population demographics.

Descriptive statistics

Emotional Intelligence and its dimensions

The levels of Emotional Intelligence and its dimensions (self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, regulation of emotion) have been measured across the experiment group before the beginning of the Coaching Program and compared with those in the general population. The mean total score for the EI level has been found to be higher in the general population than in the experiment group (83/112 versus 79/112 respectively). Mean scores were also higher across age and gender in the general population compared to the experiment group.

The lowest EI score in the experiment group was 56/112 (compared to 42 in the general population) and the highest EI score in the experiment group was 96/112 (compared to 110 in the general population). The descriptive statistics and how the differences in EI and its dimensions are distributed within the general population versus the experiment group with respect to age and gender can be found in Table 5 below.

Statistics	Self-emotion appraisal	Others' emotion appraisal	Use of emotion	Regulation of emotion	Total EI Score
Mean	21 (*22*)	18 (*22*)	23 (*21*)	17 (*19*)	79 (*83*)
Standard deviation	4 (*4*)	5 (*4*)	4 (*5*)	6 (*5*)	11 (*11*)
Mean (female)	22 (*22*)	18 (*21*)	23 (*21*)	17 (*19*)	80 (*82*)
Mean (male)	19 (*22*)	17 (*22*)	22 (*20*)	15 (*19*)	74 (*83*)
Standard deviation (female)	3 (*3*)	4 (*5*)	4 (*4*)	5 (*6*)	12 (*12*)
Standard deviation (male)	3 (*4*)	5 (*4*)	5 (*5*)	8 (*5*)	10 (*11*)
Mean (age 24-29)	22 (*21*)	17 (*22*)	22 (*20*)	17 (*18*)	78 (*81*)
Mean (age 30-35)	21 (*22*)	18 (*22*)	24 (*21*)	16 (*19*)	79 (*84*)
Standard deviation (age 24-29)	3 (*3*)	4 (*4*)	5 (*5*)	6 (*5*)	10 (*11*)

Standard deviation (age 30-35)	4 (*4*)	5 (*4*)	3 (*5*)	6 (*5*)	13 (*12*)

Table 5. Mean and Standard Deviation for Emotional Intelligence and its dimensions levels (*ex ante*). *(Levels in brackets refer to the general population)*.

When measured after the end of the Coaching Program, all levels of EI and its dimensions have improved compared to *ex ante* levels. Mean total EI score increased from 79/112 to 84/112 (7%) - from 80 to 86 (7%) for female participants and from 74 to 80 (8%) for male; from 78 to 82 (6%) for participants in the 24-29 age group and from 79 to 86 (8%) for participants in the 30-35 age group. The mean level of *self-emotion appraisal* increased from 21.4/28 to 22 (3%); the level of *others' emotion appraisal* increased from 17.6/28 to 19.4 (10%); the level of *use of emotion* increased from 23/28 to 23.6 (3%); and the level of *regulation of emotion* increased from 16.6/28 to 19.1 (15%). The *ex post* levels of EI and its dimensions were also higher across age and gender compared to *ex ante* levels with the exception of the mean level of *use of emotion* for male participants (no change).

The descriptive statistics and how the differences in *ex post* levels of EI and its dimensions are distributed for the experiment group with respect to age and gender can be found in Table 6 below.

Statistics	Self-emotion appraisal	Others' emotion appraisal	Use of emotion	Regulation of emotion	Total EI Score
Mean	22 ↑	19 ↑	24 ↑	19 ↑	84 ↑
Standard deviation	3 ↓	3 ↓	4	5 ↓	10 ↓
Mean (female)	23 ↑	20 ↑	24 ↑	19 ↑	86 ↑
Mean (male)	20 ↑	19 ↑	22	19 ↑	80 ↑
Standard deviation (female)	3	3 ↓	3 ↓	4 ↓	11 ↓
Standard deviation (male)	3	4 ↓	4 ↓	6 ↓	7 ↓
Mean (age 24-29)	22 ↑	18 ↑	23 ↑	20 ↑	82 ↑

Mean (age 30-35)	22 ↑	20 ↑	24 ↑	19 ↑	86 ↑
Standard deviation (age 24-29)	3	3 ↓	4 ↓	5 ↓	9 ↓
Standard deviation (age 30-35)	4	4 ↓	3	5 ↓	12 ↓

Table 6. Mean and Standard Deviation for Emotional Intelligence and its dimensions levels (*ex post*).

Well-Being and its dimensions.

The levels of Well-Being and its dimensions (autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, self-acceptance) have been measured across the experiment group before the beginning of the Coaching Program and compared with those in the general population. Mean total score for the well-being level has been found to be higher in the general population than in the experiment group (189/252 versus 184/252 respectively).

The lowest well-being score in the experiment group was 145/252 (compared to 100 in the general population) and the highest well-being score in the experiment group was 224/252 (compared to 243 in the general population). The descriptive statistics and how the differences in well-being and its dimensions are distributed within the general population versus the experiment group with respect to age and gender can be found in Table 7 below.

Statistics	Autonomy	Environmental mastery	Personal growth	Positive rel. with others	Purpose in life	Self-acceptance	Total W-B Score
Mean	30 *(31)*	30 *(29)*	36 *(35)*	32 *(32)*	32 *(31)*	26 *(31)*	184 *(189)*
Standard deviation	7 *(6)*	4 *(4)*	4 *(4)*	6 *(5)*	7 *(5)*	6 *(6)*	23 *(22)*
Mean (female)	30 *(32)*	30 *(30)*	36 *(36)*	32 *(33)*	32 *(32)*	26 *(32)*	186 *(194)*
Mean (male)	30 *(30)*	30 *(29)*	35 *(34)*	33 *(32)*	31 *(31)*	25 *(30)*	184 *(186)*
Standard deviation (female)	6 *(7)*	3 *(5)*	4 *(4)*	7 *(5)*	6 *(5)*	5 *(6)*	21 *(25)*
Standard deviation (male)	8 *(6)*	5 *(4)*	4 *(4)*	4 *(5)*	9 *(5)*	9 *(6)*	29 *(20)*
Mean (age 24-29)	29 *(29)*	29 *(29)*	35 *(34)*	32 *(32)*	30 *(31)*	25 *(30)*	179 *(185)*

Mean (age 30-35)	32 *(32)*	31 *(30)*	36 *(35)*	32 *(33)*	33 *(32)*	27 *(31)*	189 *(193)*
Standard deviation (age 24-29)	8 *(6)*	4 *(4)*	3 *(4)*	7 *(5)*	9 *(5)*	7 *(6)*	23 *(20)*
Standard deviation (age 30-35)	6 *(6)*	3 *(4)*	4 *(5)*	6 *(5)*	5 *(5)*	6 *(6)*	23 *(23)*

Table 7. Mean and Standard Deviation for Well-Being and its dimensions levels (*ex ante*). *(Levels in brackets refer to the general population)*.

When measured after the end of the Coaching Program, all levels of well-being and its dimensions have improved compared to *ex ante* levels. The mean total well-being score increased from 184/252 to 193/252 (5%) - from 185 to 195 (5%) for female participants and from 182 to 191 (5%) for male; from 179 to 189 (6%) for participants in the 24-29 age group and from 189 to 198 (4%) for participants in the 30-35 age group. The mean level of *autonomy* increased from 30/42 to 32 (4%); the level of *environmental mastery* increased from 30/42 to 31 (4%); the level of *personal growth* increased from 35.6/42 to 36.4 (2%); the level of *positive relations with others* increased from 32/42 to 33 (5%); the level of *purpose in life* increased from 31/42 to 32 (3%); and the level of *self-acceptance* increased from 26/42 to 28 (11%). The *ex post* levels of well-being and its dimensions were also higher across age and gender compared to *ex ante* levels with the exception of the mean level of *personal growth* for male participants (no change).

The descriptive statistics and how the differences in *ex post* levels of well-being and its dimensions are distributed for the experiment group with respect to age and gender can be found in Table 8 below.

Statistics	Autonomy	Environmental mastery	Personal growth	Positive rel. with others	Purpose in life	Self-acceptance	Total W-B Score
Mean	32 ↑	31 ↑	36 ↑	33 ↑	32 ↑	28 ↑	193 ↑
Standard deviation	6 ↓	4	4 ↓	6 ↓	6 ↓	6 ↓	23 ↓
Mean (female)	32 ↑	31 ↑	37 ↑	33 ↑	33 ↑	29 ↑	195 ↑
Mean (male)	31 ↑	31 ↑	35	35 ↑	32 ↑	27 ↑	191 ↑
Standard deviation	6 ↓	3 ↓	3 ↓	6 ↓	5 ↓	5 ↓	21

(female)							
Standard deviation (male)	8 ↓	6 ↑	4 ↓	4 ↓	7 ↓	8 ↓	28 ↓
Mean (age 24-29)	30 ↑	30 ↑	37 ↑	33 ↑	32 ↑	27 ↑	189 ↑
Mean (age 30-35)	33 ↑	32 ↑	36 ↑	34 ↑	33 ↑	30 ↑	198 ↑
Standard deviation (age 24-29)	7 ↓	4 ↑	3 ↓	5 ↓	7 ↓	6 ↓	23 ↓
Standard deviation (age 30-35)	5 ↓	3 ↓	4 ↓	6 ↓	5 ↓	6 ↓	23 ↓

Table 8. Mean and Standard Deviation for Well-Being and its dimensions levels (*ex post*).

2.2 Main problem of the study

The main problem formulated for this study is: *does coaching impact emotional intelligence and well-being?* For both dependent variables: Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being levels, the increase of the mean level has been at least 5% from *ex ante* measurement to *ex post*. Given that no other external variable or circumstance was manipulated, this impact can be contributed solely to the Coaching Program and therefore the influence of coaching as an independent variable.

Fourteen exploratory subproblems have also been formulated for the main problem of the study.

(SP 1) Does coaching impact self-emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability)?

The increase in the level of *self-emotion appraisal* dimension was 3%. Although it is a positive change, further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore the impact of coaching on *self-emotion appraisal*.

(SP 2) Does coaching impact others' emotion appraisal (emotional intelligence ability)?

The increase in the level of *others' emotion appraisal* dimension was 10%. It is a significant positive increase, which allows to conclude that coaching impacts *others' emotion appraisal.*

(SP 3) Does coaching impact use of emotion (emotional intelligence ability)?

The increase in the level of *use of emotion* dimension was 3%. Although it is a positive change, further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore the impact of coaching on *use of emotion.*

(SP 4) Does coaching impact regulation of emotion (emotional intelligence ability)?

The increase in the level of *regulation of emotion* dimension was 15%. It is a significant positive increase, which allows to conclude that coaching impacts *regulation of emotion.*

(SP 5) Does coaching impact personal growth (well-being component)?

The increase in the level of *personal growth* dimension was 2%. Although it is a positive change, further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore the impact of coaching on *personal growth.*

(SP 6) Does coaching impact autonomy (well-being component)?

The increase in the level of *autonomy* dimension was 2%. Although it is a positive change, further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore the impact of coaching on *autonomy.*

(SP 7) Does coaching impact self-acceptance (well-being component)?

The increase in the level of *self-acceptance* dimension was 11%. It is a significant positive increase, which allows to conclude that coaching impacts *self-acceptance.*

(SP 8) Does coaching impact life purpose (well-being component)?

The increase in the level of *life purpose* dimension was 3%. Although it is a positive change, further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore the impact of coaching on *life purpose.*

(SP 9) Does coaching impact positive relatedness (well-being component)?

The increase in the level of *positive relatedness* dimension was 5%. It is a significant positive increase, which allows to conclude that coaching impacts *positive relatedness.*

(SP 10) Does coaching impact environmental mastery (well-being component)?

The increase in the level of *environmental mastery* dimension was 4%. Although it is a positive change, further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore the impact of coaching on *environmental mastery*.

(SP 11) Does age differentiate the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence?

The mean EI score increased from 78 to 82 (6%) for participants in the 24-29 age group and from 79 to 86 (8%) for participants in the 30-35 age group. For the experiment group, the increase of the EI level was higher for the participants in the older age group than for younger participants.

(SP 12) Does age differentiate the impact of coaching on well-being?

The mean well-being score increased from 179 to 189 (6%) for participants in the 24-29 age group and from 189 to 198 (4%) for participants in the 30-35 age group. For the experiment group, the increase of the well-being level was higher for the participants in the younger age group than for older participants.

(SP 13) Does gender differentiate the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence?

The mean EI score increased from 80 to 86 (7%) for female participants and from 74 to 80 (8%) for male participants. For the experiment group, the increase of the EI level was therefore higher for male participants than for female participants.

(SP 14) Does gender differentiate the impact of coaching on well-being?

The mean well-being score increased from 185 to 195 (5%) for female participants and from 182 to 191 (5%) for male. There was no difference for genders in mean change between *ex ante* and *ex post* measurements. Further research on larger participant sample is warranted to further explore whether or not and to what extent gender differentiates the impact of coaching on well-being.

2.3 Verification of the hypotheses

Verifying normality assumptions for hypothesis testing

The Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale and the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale were administered before and after coaching. Summary statistics for the subscales and total scale scores are presented in Table 9. The normality of the distributions was assessed using *z*-scores formed by dividing skewness by the standard error of skewness. A z-score within +/- 1.96 is indicative of a normal distribution (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995). As shown, all the scales were normally distributed, meeting the normality assumptions for the parametric statistics to be used in testing the hypotheses.

Scales	*Mean*	*SD*	*Skewness*	*SE*	*z*
Well-Being (*ex ante)*					
Autonomy	30.20	6.62	0.24	0.51	0.47
Environmental Mastery	29.85	3.77	-0.07	0.51	-0.14
Personal Growth	35.55	3.83	0.00	0.51	-0.01
Positive Relations	31.85	6.25	-0.05	0.51	-0.11
Life Purpose	31.35	6.95	-0.80	0.51	-1.55
Self-Acceptance	25.70	6.25	0.27	0.51	0.52
Total Well-Being	184.15	23.11	0.32	0.51	0.63
Emotional Intelligence (*ex ante)*					
Self-Appraisal	21.40	3.68	0.01	0.51	0.02
Others' Appraisal	17.55	4.54	0.10	0.51	0.19
Use of Emotion	22.95	4.29	-0.72	0.51	-1.41
Regulation of Emotion	16.60	5.87	-0.43	0.51	-0.84
Total EI	78.50	11.34	-0.48	0.51	-0.94
Well-Being (*ex post)*					
Autonomy	31.55	6.41	-0.07	0.51	-0.14
Environmental Mastery	31.10	3.82	-0.60	0.51	-1.17
Personal Growth	36.40	3.65	-0.65	0.51	-1.26
Positive Relations	33.45	5.64	-0.28	0.51	-0.54
Life Purpose	32.40	5.61	-0.58	0.51	-1.13
Self-Acceptance	28.40	6.01	0.34	0.51	0.66
Total Well-Being	193.30	22.66	0.36	0.51	0.70
Emotional Intelligence (*ex post*)					

Self-Appraisal	22.00	3.48	-0.07	0.51	-0.13
Others' Appraisal	19.35	3.39	0.47	0.51	0.91
Use of Emotion	23.55	3.63	-0.65	0.51	-1.27
Regulation of Emotion	19.10	4.68	-0.31	0.51	-0.61
Total EI	84.00	10.47	0.08	0.51	0.15

Table 9. Summary statistics.

Hypothesis Testing

The following main hypothesis (MH) has been formulated for this study:

(MH) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of respectively: (1) emotional intelligence and (2) well-being.

This hypothesis has been split into *Main Hypothesis 1* and *Main Hypothesis 2* and tested. The results are summarized below.

Hypothesis 1: *Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of emotional intelligence.*

This hypothesis was tested using paired *t*-tests to compare the pre-coaching and post-coaching emotional intelligence subscales and total scores. The results are presented in Table 10. Coaching was found to have a significant impact on total emotional intelligence (t (19) = 6.82, $p < .001$), as well as on the aspects of emotional intelligence measured by the four subscales. These results support rejection of the null hypothesis, and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis (*Main Hypothesis 1*).

	Ex ante		*Ex post*		Difference			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Self-Appraisal	21.40	3.68	22.00	3.48	0.60	1.23	2.18	0.042
Others' Appraisal	17.55	4.54	19.35	3.39	1.80	1.91	4.22	< .001
Use of Emotion	22.95	4.29	23.55	3.63	0.60	1.14	2.35	0.030
Regulation of Emotion	16.60	5.87	19.10	4.68	2.50	1.82	6.14	< .001
Total EI	78.50	11.34	84.00	10.47	5.50	3.61	6.82	< .001

Table 10. Impact of coaching on emotional intelligence and its dimensions.

The obtained *p*-values (less than 0.05) also suggest that the related sub-hypotheses formulated for this study are true:

(SH 1) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of self-emotion appraisal.

(SH 2) Coaching will have a significant impact on the reported level of others' emotion appraisal.

(SH 3) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of use of emotion.

(SH 4) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of regulation of emotion.

and for each of the above, null hypotheses indicating no impact of coaching on respectively: *self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion* and *regulation of emotion* can all be rejected.

Under null hypotheses there would be no significant difference in means between the *ex post* and *ex ante* levels of emotional intelligence and its dimensions indicating that the coaching intervention made no difference over a period of 10 weeks. Since these hypotheses have been rejected, it proves that coaching *has* made a significant impact on participants' levels of emotional intelligence and all its dimensions.

Main Hypothesis 2: *Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of well-being.*

This hypothesis was tested using paired *t*-tests to compare the pre-coaching (*ex ante*) and post-coaching (*ex post*) well-being subscales and total scores. The results, presented in Table 11, indicate that coaching had a significant impact on total well-being (t (19) = 10.25, $p < .001$) as well as on the aspects of well-being measured by the six subscales. These results support rejection of the null hypothesis, and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis (*Main Hypothesis 2*).

	Ex ante		*Ex post*		Difference			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Autonomy	30.20	6.62	31.55	6.41	1.35	1.42	4.24	< .001
Environmental Mastery	29.85	3.77	31.10	3.82	1.25	1.41	3.97	0.001
Personal Growth	35.55	3.83	36.40	3.65	0.85	1.69	2.24	0.037

Positive Relations	31.85	6.25	33.45	5.64	1.60	1.76	4.07	0.001
Life Purpose	31.35	6.95	32.40	5.61	1.05	2.14	2.20	0.041
Self-Acceptance	25.70	6.25	28.40	6.01	2.70	1.81	6.67	< .001
Total Well-Being	184.15	23.11	193.30	22.66	9.15	3.99	10.25	< .001

Table 11. Impact of coaching on well-being and its dimensions.

The obtained *p*-values (less than 0.05) also suggest that the related sub-hypotheses formulated for this study are true:

(SH 5) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of personal growth.

(SH 6) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of autonomy.

(SH 7) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of self-acceptance.

(SH 8) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of life purpose.

(SH 9) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of positive relatedness.

(SH 10) Coaching will have a significant impact on reported level of environmental mastery.

and for each of the above, null hypotheses indicating no impact of coaching on respectively: *autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, life purpose* and *self-acceptance* can all be rejected.

Under null hypothesis there would be no significant difference in means between the *ex post* and *ex ante* levels of well-being and its dimensions indicating that the coaching intervention made no difference over a period of 10 weeks. Since these hypotheses have been rejected, it proves that coaching *has* made a significant impact on participants' levels of well-being and all its dimensions.

Sub-hypotheses SH 11-14 have been grouped into the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: *The impact of coaching on well-being and emotional intelligence will differ depending on the age and gender of the participants.*

This hypothesis was tested by first creating gain scores (post-test scores minus pre-test scores) for each of the well-being and emotional intelligence subscales and total scores. Then two series of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare respondents by gender and age. The results are presented in Tables 12 and 13. As shown, no significant differences were found in the degree to which the participants benefited from the coaching, either with regard to gender or in terms of age. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

	Male (n = 6)		Female (n = 14)				
Gain Scores	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Well Being							
Autonomy	1.17	1.72	1.43	1.34	-0.37	18	0.717
Environmental Mastery	0.83	0.98	1.43	1.55	-0.86	18	0.401
Personal Growth	0.17	1.33	1.14	1.79	-1.19	18	0.248
Positive Relations	2.00	1.41	1.43	1.91	0.66	18	0.520
Life Purpose	1.17	2.14	1.00	2.22	0.16	18	0.878
Self-Acceptance	2.17	1.47	2.93	1.94	-0.86	18	0.403
Total Well-Being	8.67	3.44	9.36	4.31	-0.35	18	0.733
Emotional Intelligence (EI)							
Self-Appraisal	0.67	1.03	0.57	1.34	0.15	18	0.879
Others' Appraisal	1.83	1.83	1.79	2.01	0.05	18	0.961
Use of Emotion	0.00	1.10	0.86	1.10	-1.60	18	0.127
Regulation of Emotion	3.33	2.80	2.14	1.17	1.37	18	0.187
Total EI	5.83	2.99	5.36	3.93	0.26	18	0.795

Table 12. Gender comparisons on well-being and emotional intelligence gain scores.

	Age 24-29 (n = 10)		Age 30-35 (n = 10)				
Gain Scores	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Well Being							
Autonomy	1.50	1.65	1.20	1.23	0.46	18	0.650
Environmental Mastery	1.40	1.78	1.10	0.99	0.47	18	0.647
Personal Growth	1.50	1.58	0.20	1.62	1.82	18	0.086
Positive Relations	1.10	1.85	2.10	1.60	-1.29	18	0.212
Life Purpose	1.70	2.45	0.40	1.65	1.39	18	0.181
Self-Acceptance	2.40	1.35	3.00	2.21	-0.73	18	0.473
Total Well-Being	9.90	2.28	8.40	5.21	0.83	18	0.415
Emotional Intelligence (EI)							
Self-Appraisal	0.20	1.23	1.00	1.15	-1.50	18	0.151

Others' Appraisal	1.60	1.84	2.00	2.05	-0.46	18	0.652
Use of Emotion	0.50	1.18	0.70	1.16	-0.38	18	0.707
Regulation of Emotion	2.20	2.15	2.80	1.48	-0.73	18	0.476
Total EI	4.50	2.84	6.50	4.14	-1.26	18	0.224

Table 13. Age comparisons on well-being and emotional intelligence gain scores.

As shown by the above results, neither age or gender makes a difference for the improvement following coaching results. Such results confirm the author's intuition regarding gender having no impact on how susceptive individuals are to coaching. However, initially the author thought that the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence level will be higher in the older age group (30-35) rather than the younger (24-29) due to the fact that the participants in the older age group may be perceived as emotionally more balanced and more conscious about their emotional development. The obtained results do not support such a claim.

Exploratory Analyses

Pearson correlations were conducted between the well-being gain scores and the emotional intelligence gain scores to determine if any of the positive changes in well-being were significantly related to the positive changes found in emotional intelligence. The results are presented in Table 14. The increase in Positive Relations was significantly related to the increase in Other's Emotional Appraisal ($r = 0.712$, $p < .001$). Such a result seems to highlight a natural connection between dimensions of well-being and emotional intelligence. An individual with a better understanding and recognition of the emotional states of others will be able to better relate to others and build stronger, more positive relationships.

The increase in Self-Acceptance was significantly related to the increase in Self-Appraisal ($r = 0.463$, $p < .05$) and the increase in Total EI ($r = 0.514$, $p < .05$). Such a result also seems to highlight a natural connection between dimensions of well-being and emotional intelligence. An individual with a better understanding and recognition of their own emotional states will be able to better understand oneself, and - what follows - show self-acceptance.

	Emotional Intelligence				
Gain Scores	Self-Appraisal	Others' Appraisal	Use of Emotion	Regulation of Emotion	Total EI

Well-Being										
Autonomy	0.114		0.356		0.091		-0.071		0.220	
Environmental Mastery	0.030		0.039		0.098		-0.092		0.016	
Personal Growth	0.323		0.186		0.076		-0.111		0.177	
Positive Relations	0.360		0.712	***	-0.241		-0.181		0.332	
Life Purpose	-0.092		-0.294		0.375		-0.061		-0.099	
Self-Acceptance	0.463	*	0.134		0.219		0.319		0.460	*
Total Well-Being	0.313		0.281		0.360		0.286		0.514	*

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$

Table 14. Pearson correlations between well-being and emotional intelligence gain scores.

An additional set of Pearson correlations was conducted to compare the post-coaching levels of well-being to the post-coaching levels of emotional intelligence. The results are presented in Table 15. A strong positive relationship was found between Total Well-Being and Total EI ($r = 0.791$, $p < .001$). Several additional positive relationships were evidenced between the Well-Being and EI subscales.

Use of emotion was strongly related to Life Purpose for example. An individual with the ability to use emotions in order to achieve desired goals will have a higher sense of purpose - more conscious and diligent action towards a goal strengthens a sense of purpose. Regulation of emotion was strongly related to Personal Growth, Self-Acceptance and Total Well-Being. An individual who is able to control their emotions (or working towards it) and regulate their emotions to assure their response is adequate will also notice enhanced personal growth. With adequate emotional responses in retrospect, such an individual will also have higher acceptance of oneself. Overall, mastering Regulation of Emotion will therefore also positively affect Well-Being.

	Emotional Intelligence									
Posttest Scores	Self-Appraisal		Others' Appraisal		Use of Emotion		Regulation of Emotion		Total EI	
Well-Being										
Autonomy	0.493	*	-0.041		0.515	*	0.693		0.639	**
Environmental Mastery	0.198		0.066		0.416		0.529	*	0.468	*
Personal Growth	0.506	*	0.141		0.372		0.772	***	0.687	***
Positive Relations	0.131		0.591	**	-0.020		0.255		0.342	
Life Purpose	0.472	*	0.003		0.753	***	0.506	*	0.646	**

Self-Acceptance	0.282		0.181	0.594	**	0.683	***	0.664	***
Total Well-Being	0.479	*	0.218	0.615	**	0.780	***	0.791	***

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 15. Pearson correlations between well-being and emotional intelligence post-coaching scores.

CHAPTER 3. Qualitative analysis

This chapter characterizes the results of the qualitative data analysis: sample characteristics are shared, details of the coaching sessions are discussed (including example coaching scenarios and example coaching techniques applied), results of the unstructured interviews (including benefits of coaching, benefits of psychoeducation and impact of coaching on learning mentioned by the participants) and the results of the semi-structured interviews are described and commented below.

3.1 Sample characteristics

Participants of the Coaching Program formed a very diverse group - they were citizens of various countries, with various personal identity, social identity, cultural background, and professional experience. The following nationalities were represented in the experiment group: American, Argentinian, Australian, Ecuadorian, English, German, Hungarian, Irish, Polish, Romanian, Scottish, Serbian, Spanish, and Venezuelan. Out of 20 participants, 4 were remote employees (working from home) and 16 were working from either an office located in Barcelona or an office located in San Francisco. Across all participants, a wide variety of work and education background was registered. Some examples include: music production industry, art gallery, refugee camp social worker, journalism, engineering, mathematics (graph theorist), or a culinary blogger (in Malaysia).

3.2 Coaching sessions

For each participant, the Coaching Program consisting of 10 coaching sessions took between 10 and 16 weeks. Each time, the agenda came from the participant. Because of the interest of selected participants in developing Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being, the agenda was (1) either focused specifically on a particular dimension of EI or Well-Being, (2) or required involving one of these dimensions in order to fully address the issue brought up by the participant.

The coaching methodology used was based on the Core Competency Model (ICF, 2019a). This model is an evidence-based model of coaching standards used within the coaching profession. Sessions took place in various settings, however, each time away from day-to-day work to a certain extent. It allowed to create a safe place where coachees could talk freely and reflect on current issues as well as challenges and successes they were experiencing. To move forward with issues brought up by the coachee, both the coach and the coachee needed to create a good coaching relationship that would allow for efficient planning and goal setting, as well as managing progress and coachee's accountability. The coaching skills that were most helpful during the coaching sessions for the coach were: active listening, the ability to ask powerful questions and create awareness, especially when discussing sensitive situations. One of the participants of the Coaching Program stated:

"Throughout the Coaching Program my perceived self-worth increased because I felt that someone actually was taking their time to listen to me and that my opinion was highly valued."

One of the preconditions for a successful coaching process is the coachee's motivation to continuously develop, change, and specify a clear desires or goals such as, for example: desire to solve a specific problem, willingness to learn how to manage stress, improving the ability to make decisions when at a crossroads or simply wanting to better organize oneself. The role of the coach was to help coachees explore their resources, to create a space for development, to focus on change and action, and finally to broaden the range of possibilities for coachees. Coaching was perceived as effective by all participants as by volunteering for the Coaching Program, they have *a priori* accepted the need for change in order to grow and develop their skills.

Example scenarios

The coaching sessions built on individual professional or personal development needs - mostly identified by coachees themselves, but also sometimes by their peers or managers. Here are some examples of the issues that coachees wanted to work on specifically or situations they wanted to work through.

Example 1

For one of the participants, work was constantly in the back of her head. As the week progressed, she could not find time to focus on non-work related projects that she needed for her own personal development. She realized that was negatively affecting her well-being and wanted to improve it.

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Example 2

One participant would undergo a strong emotional reaction every time a situation was against her values. She wanted to create a plan of action that would allow for a healthy coping reaction.

Example 3

A relatively common thread that appeared was connected to changes occuring in the company coupled with high level of uncertainty and the effect it had on people. One of the participants felt demotivated by constant changes as they would make him feel anxious, evoke negative emotions and consequently lead to not feeling valued as an employee.

Example 4

Some participants were affected by the environment they worked in. One of them admitted that she misses a sense of community - being able to discuss interesting topics with others and learning from others. This would inhibit a sense of growth and development that she valued highly and used to experience in her previous workplace.

Example 5

For some of the participants, taking feedback was a real challenge at first as they would feel vulnerable and any kind of criticism would affect their perceived self worth. This - in turn - would inhibit their ability to be efficient in their work as team leads or managers. They chose coaching to design an action plan to improve.

Example 6

Some of the participants wanted to improve their communication, especially: (1) learn more about how their message could be received and understood by their teammates, (2) what is the impact of the messages and communication on others, and (3) how to listen to other teammates' replies and make sure they feel listened to and their questions and comments are properly addressed.

Example dimensions of EI or Well-Being specifically targeted

Because of the nature of the Coaching Program, one of the objectives of the participants was to develop their Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being, hence the agenda of the coaching sessions was often focused specifically on a particular dimension of EI or Well-Being. Here are some of the examples that the participants were working on improving.

- Regulation of emotion (reason: the score of the EI questionnaire for this dimension came out relatively low - it was a relatively common improvement area for participants),
- Self-acceptance (reason: the score for this dimension of well-being came out relatively low for one of the participants and he wanted to specifically improve it),
- Others' emotion appraisal (dimension of EI - relatively common improvement area among participants),
- Personal growth (reason: the score of the well-being questionnaire for this dimension came out relatively low - it was a relatively common improvement area for participants),
- Purpose in life (reason: the score of the well-being questionnaire for this dimension came out relatively low - it was a relatively common improvement area for participants).

Example coaching techniques applied

The coaching tools and techniques used by the coach during the Coaching Program have been described in the Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Handbook. One of the other techniques used was the Wheel of Change Framework (Goldsmith & Reiter, 2015). The Wheel of Change Framework incorporates the following four stages in order to make a desired change: creating (positive elements that we would like to add in the future), preserving (positive elements that we would like to maintain in the future), eliminating (negative elements that we

want to get rid of in the future) and accepting (negative elements that simply need to be accepted).

One of the participants of the Coaching Program successfully applied the Wheel of Change to improve how she regulates her emotions in the moment, in the short run and in the long run. Here is the plan that has been initially designed during the coaching sessions with the coach and then gradually implemented with support from the coach.

1. Wheel of Change

Creating

The participant wanted to create a healthy emotional margin of acceptance - where she would accept that things happen suddenly and may have a severe impact on her, possibly leading to emotions overflow when she no longer feels "in charge" and is no longer able to contain her negative emotions.

Preserving

She wanted to preserve her caring side and the use of her communication skills when sharing the context with the team as well as preparing them for changes, even if those changes come suddenly and without warning.

Eliminating

She decided that what she wants to eliminate is her extreme emotional reaction to sudden situations - specifically a reaction of anger or frustration that would prevent her from optimal functioning in her workplace environment. She wanted to eliminate situations in which she would face negative emotions overflow.

Accepting

She decided to accept that some people will judge her behavior and reactions even if her coping skills improve. She realized that other people's judgment is outside her circle of influence and she would rather focus on accepting it.

2. Desired Shift Cycle

Another framework that has been used in the coaching sessions is the *Desired Shift* Cycle (developed by the author in her coaching practice, see: Appendix H). It consists of the following stages (mnemonic acronym: *SOADES*):

Situation

Together with the coach, the coachee decides which types of situations she/he would like to focus on to introduce desired changes.

Observation

The task for the coachee is to observe thoughts, emotions, body sensations, behaviors and reactions occuring in a situation selected in the previous stage.

Analysis

The coach and the coachee analyze all observations the coachee has made in a coaching session. They analyze together where coachee's thoughts, emotions, sensations, behaviors or reactions are coming from and why.

Direction

Based on the *analysis* stage, the coachee then answers the following questions:

(1) Who would you like to be in this situation?

(2) How would you want to behave/feel/react?

(3) What would you like your thoughts to focus on?

(4) What would you do differently?

(5) Are there any changes you would apply? If so, what are they?

After answering these questions and discussing each point in detail, the coachee then decides which changes she/he would like to apply.

Experiment

The task for the coachee is to apply changes discussed to applicable situations and make the same type of observations as during the *Observation* phase.

Shift

During the next coaching session, the coach and the coachee evaluate the observations together. The coachee then decides whether to keep the changes or not. A new cycle starts when that decision is made.

Some of the stages are executed solely by the coachee, others will occur in the coaching session, however, all stages are initially discussed before a given *Desired Shift* Cycle begins.

Example coaching scenario: using Desired Shift Cycle

In the example below a real scenario has been presented describing a shift that occurred in behavior of one of the participants of the Coaching Program due to the application of the Desired Shift Cycle coaching technique.

Situation

In this example we follow Tim (the name has been changed) who is a manager of the engineering team. He wanted to work on a better communication with his team and across teams specifically. But also, he needed to communicate the results of his team's work to other teams - less technically trained - and wanted to make sure that his communication was spot on as well. The problem that he has identified was understanding the emotions of others (Emotional Intelligence component) that did not allow him to communicate efficiently in every situation.

Observation

As an outcome of a coaching session the Tim decided to experiment with the following approach in a team meeting: his task was to observe thoughts, emotions, body sensations during an upcoming meeting with the engineers and write down all observations right after.

Analysis

In the next coaching session, Tim analyzed his observations with the coach. He realized that in a team meeting - if there were any doubts raised by his team - he'd explain and share the context, but at some point he would cut people off by saying: “let's move on and I will send a

follow up to explain further and collect feedback". Tim noticed that unfortunately that was not an efficient strategy, because not many people would actually then care to share feedback.

Direction

Tim decided to listen to people on his team more and if he noticed that doubts are being raised, he would actually set up a follow up meeting instead to discuss these doubts and concerns rather than send another follow up email. He decided to try this approach during his next team meeting as an experiment.

Experiment

The experiment was successful and Tim discussed the outcomes with the coach during the next coaching session. He said that giving an opportunity for everyone to speak up increased the trust level on the team and created a great discussion panel in the end, where everyone felt free to bring any issue to the table with confidence that it was going to be addressed in a respectful manner and acted upon.

Shift

As the experiment was successful, Tim decided to keep the changes and shift his behavior. He admitted the following:

> "*What helped me was not only listening but also making sure that I'm willing and open to hear anything from my team. I'm a doer, so of course then I wanted to address everything, but allowing everyone to speak in the moment changed completely how I was perceived and allowed me to closely observe my team's reactions. At some point I was able to notice myself when someone had a doubt or concern and I'd encourage that person to speak up*".

3.2 Unstructured interviews

While conducting the unstructured interviews with the participants of the study, the following themes emerged:

1. coaching benefits;

2. how coaching impacts learning and the benefits that the participants noticed after studying educational materials for their sessions;
3. examples of "a-ha" moments experienced by the participants;
4. the importance of using an internal coach and potential challenges.

Each of the above themes has been discussed in details below.

Benefits of coaching

The participants of the Coaching Program mentioned many benefits of coaching that they have experienced and many improvements that they have observed. Some of the benefits mentioned included: better performance and efficiency in their role; greater skills - both practical and soft; higher self-worth and greater sense of value; improved wellbeing; more control over their learning; feeling empowered to develop new skills.

Some participants said that what they found helpful about coaching as an approach was that they needed to specify their desires and needs and work towards their goals with a sense of direction:

"Coaching helps define what you want and recognize what you don't want."

"What coaching helped me with was restoring my work-life balance. It's still not where I want to see it, but I've made an important step and significant progress that I'm very happy with. Seeing the results helped me to be even more diligent to achieve my goal."

Others recognized coaching as a good grounding approach helping them work through many difficult situations and empowering them to overcome challenges:

"Such a methodical approach was exactly what I needed. I needed an approach that would allow me to analyze even the most extreme situations. An approach that would allow me to feel grounded even when I felt like I'm completely losing control over what's going on".

"I simply feel empowered to deal with my own problems."

Many participants mentioned that coaching gave them a greater appreciation of their teammates and made them realize the value of their teams. As a result made many participants became better leaders or better teammates themselves:

"Giving everyone an opportunity to speak up increased the trust level on my team and created a great discussion panel in the end, where everyone felt free to bring any issue to the table with confidence that it was going to be addressed in a respectful manner and acted upon."

"What helped me was not only listening but also making sure that I'm willing and open to hear anything from my team. I'm a doer, so of course then I wanted to address everything right away, but allowing everyone to speak in the moment completely changed how I was perceived and allowed me to closely observe my team's reactions. At some point I was able to notice myself when someone had a doubt or concern and I'd encourage that person to speak up".

"I realized that in reality it's not about me... it's more about what other people share. It really is about the team - people on the team just want to do more together and function better as a team."

All of the participants of the Coaching Program felt more engaged and motivated during the duration of the program:

"I have a much better understanding of my own emotions and through re-engaging with people at work and people in the industry I was able to focus more on my personal growth. I noticed that because of the positive energy created through my actions and effort, I feel more engaged and more motivated."

"I find more motivation and energy to work. My creative side is kicking in more often and that makes me feel way happier!"

"My sense of achievement was really high towards the end of the Coaching Program - suddenly I could see the benefits of all my coping strategies!"

The impact of coaching on learning and the benefits of psychoeducation

Another advantage of the Coaching Program that has been widely recognized by the participants was that it allowed them to take control of their learning process. Increased self-awareness gained from the coaching sessions allowed the participants to identify improvement areas and target them. Discussing different options and possibilities allowed the coachees to consider more alternatives when designing their action plan, and the coach's encouragement to experiment allowed them to learn from experienced new situations. According to Smith and Gilbert (2003), each coaching session is a learning situation as well, because it is the coachee's agenda that is being discussed and it's that agenda that is the subject of the task. The coach encourages learning through asking both *open-* and *closed-ended* questions, using various techniques that inspire learning, helping coachees realize what their learning needs are, and through empowering coachees to acquire and develop new skills. Consequently, coachees become more self-reflective and focused on self-improvement.

The participants of the Coaching Program stated that the educational materials on Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being discussed in the *Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Handbook* provided by the coach, as well as new techniques learnt during the coaching sessions contributed to increased EI and well-being. Some participants stated that building theoretical background for Emotional Intelligence allowed them to understand emotions and the reasons behind their emotional reactions better, and as a result react better or become better professionals.

"Being aware of the definitions of Emotional Intelligence and the 4 categories helped a lot. First of all, it made me aware of their existence, their meaning and significance. Being aware made me think more of other people and also my own reactions. I also started analyzing in a more conscious way how people react to what I say."

"I realized that reading about certain aspects of my personality, like resilience, vulnerability, or sensitivity, or aspects of Emotional Intelligence... allowed me to come up with better coping strategies and deal with situations in a way that's better for me and more professional."

Other participants mentioned that learning about well-being and all its dimensions allowed them to particularly focus on one (or a few) chosen aspect(s), learn, experiment and observe the outcomes. For many, expanding their knowledge and theoretical background allowed them to appreciate the importance of each dimension of well-being, understand what can impact well-being and prioritize.

"I realized how important the relationships I have with my colleagues are. I also realized that I can shape my own environment - so I might as well use that impact to shape my environment to my own liking wherever I can."

"Reading about well-being and the Coaching Program in general allowed me to take a step back and evaluate what is important to me in life. I was able to regain the purpose of what I do at work, perform better, and lead my team better."

"The Coaching Program pushed me to really think about what it is that I like to do and where I can contribute. When I was reading about different components that are important for my well-being and happiness I realized that I haven't been focusing on any of them really at all. With greater understanding I was able to target specifically my sense of achievement and fulfillment and slowly, over a period of a few months, build both."

Examples of "a-ha" moments experienced by the participants

During the coaching program, the participants experienced many so called "a-ha" moments - moments of great discovery, whether about themselves, a situation, or environment they worked at. Many of them highlighted the importance of such moments during the interview phase. They agreed that such moments created a lot of awareness for them and these were the moments when they would admit to themselves the "ugly truth" and were able to switch into "finding solutions" mode from there. The participants who shared their experience of the "a-ha" moment in the interview stated that such solution-oriented approach consequently led to efficient goal attainment. Below are some examples that the participants shared.

Example 1

One of the participants realized that very often she would make assumptions regarding a given situation and - without clarifying anything - she would build certain expectations about the reality and wait for them to come true. Often, such an attitude led to frustration as the expectations did not always match reality. This participant wanted to focus on improving *regulation of emotions* - a dimension of emotional intelligence.

The participant said that one moment was particularly helpful. She was discussing a situation and - in particular - analyzing where all her emotions and the reactions were coming from. She was dissecting one of recent situations at work and analyzing where she could have made unnecessary assumptions and unnecessarily built expectations. She focused on an approach in which she was looking for alternative (alternative to assumptions she had made) explanations as to why something has happened. With each of such alternative scenarios she was asking herself a question whether or not she would be able to accept such an explanation. She discovered that - in fact - every situation could have potentially at least three legitimate explanations that she was willing to accept.

Almost right after she realized that in order to be sure, she will need to drop the habit of making assumptions and start asking for clarifications. This moment was a huge breakthrough in her work on emotional intelligence. From there on, she committed to clarifying her doubts, avoided making unnecessary assumptions and found it much easier to control her emotions and reactions in a given situation.

Example 2

One of the participants wanted to create a sense of community at work. He stated that he had been a part of various active social groups at his previous job and would like to create something similar in his current role. What he was missing was the sense of belonging to a group of like-minded people he could discuss various concepts with. In the early weeks of the coaching program he designed a few high energy and effort solutions (for example organizing a meetup at the office for people from different companies but the same industry) and was working towards making them happen. He was getting stuck and frustrated as the solutions he had chosen were costing him too much effort.

During one of the coaching sessions - while discussing a situation related to *environmental mastery* (well-being dimension) he realized that he is limiting himself to high cost solutions instead of creating an environment around himself at a lower cost and while spending less time. He realized that there are other - lower cost solutions - that he can actually work towards and achieve in a shorter period of time, which would help him meet his need of having a community at work. One of the low cost ideas was organizing a company-wide book club (which he did within one week from that coaching session).

This was a very important, breakthrough moment for this participant. Right after, he started organizing and controlling external activities better - in a way that would serve the purpose of building a better work environment and stronger sense of community. He experimented with this approach and at the end of the program his sub-score for *environmental mastery* increased by 11 points.

Advantages of an internal coach and potential challenges

The Experiment Group was recruited from the company where the coach is a manager (therefore employed primarily in a different role). According to Frisch (2001), internal coaches are in a better position than external coaches from the logistical standpoint, simply because they have an opportunity to make their observations in real time in a workplace setting. Internal coaches are highly aware of the culture of the organisation, common frustrations of employees, leadership challenges, and occurring changes, which significantly adds to the value of the support they can offer (Frisch, 2001). One of the participants of the Coaching Program shared the following:

"What helped me was that the coach understood the industry and also had experience in the same industry. It made the examples she shared more relatable for me and I had a feeling that I'm being fully understood as she has gone through similar situations or processes herself in the past."

Being an internal coach, however, may also cause some challenges, especially if the internal coach has another function in the organization. To address the potential challenge of a

double function, the role of the coach has been discussed in depth with each participant as well as the boundaries of the coaching relationship, and each of the participants signed the Coaching & Confidentiality Agreement, which also elicits the role of the coach in the Coaching Program.

3.2 Semi-structured interviews

After the last session of the Coaching Program and after participants have re-submitted their answers to EI and Well-Being questionnaires, semi-structured interviews were conducted. Initially the participants were supposed to answer six questions:

1. What were your expectations of the role of coaching in achieving your goals?
2. How would you rate the efficiency of coaching as an approach throughout the program (in helping you achieve your goals, for example, or helping organize thoughts, come up with next steps)
3. What were the most valuable aspects of coaching?
4. What were the least valuable aspects of coaching?
5. What career path changes, or other significant changes have you experienced during the coaching program?
6. How much did it matter that the coach was not an expert for a similar role?

However, any answers to question 5 about the career path changes could not be attributed exclusively to coaching, as career path changes typically occur over a much longer period of time than 10 weeks. For that reason, the above questions were shortened to the following final version:

1. What were your expectations of the role of coaching in achieving your goals?
2. How would you rate the efficiency of coaching as an approach throughout the program?
3. What were the most valuable aspects of coaching?
4. What were the least valuable aspects of coaching?
5. What important shifts in thinking have you experienced during the coaching program?

The answers collected have been analyzed below.

Expectations of the role of coaching in achieving your goals

Most of the participants stated that the Coaching Program met their expectations, for a couple of coachees it exceeded the expectations and two of them did not have any expectations at all. What helped set the right expectations for the participants was the information they received beforehand about the program and the availability of the coach to answer all potential questions and clarify all doubts prior to the start of the program.

Some of those participants whose expectations have been met admitted that they prepared in advance for the upcoming coaching program and thought about the goals that they wanted to achieve and use coaching to help them with that. One of the participants stated the following:

"I feel fulfilled. I didn't give up on anything and I was able to achieve a goal I planned in advance. Before I was really concerned that achieving anything extra in a week will not allow me to keep my balance."

Some of those participants who claim that the results of coaching exceeded their expectations were surprised how much they were able to achieve. For example, some participants achieved significant results in strengthening their emotional intelligence. One of the participants, for example, was worried that in her opinion she is not able to control emotions in a sense that the unwanted reaction always shows. She gets over it, but the emotional reaction, sometimes in her opinion out of proportion, was always there. This participant did not expect that coaching can help her understand that she can read emotions as information. She was able to realize it and learn to listen to emotions, as they carry a lot of information. She would then use her cognitive reasoning to analyze and figure out what is causing a feeling, where does the emotional reaction come from and why she feels a certain way. She shared that:

"Information about emotions is very helpful, I understand emotions and can react better. I understand the reasons behind my emotional reactions, and help control emotions in a healthy way. I did not expect that coaching can show me how to do that."

The fact that the participants knew the coach from a professional workplace setting also was a helpful factor:

"I was sceptical at first towards the whole coaching program idea, but because I knew the coach and trusted her, I decided to give it a try."

The efficiency of coaching as an approach

Coaching has been described by a vast majority of participants as an efficient approach. They mentioned that they would consider *coaching* the right approach towards achieving individual goals, improving skills, planning, improving performance, or staying on track (just some examples), and would choose this approach in the future as well.

Those who saw great value in coaching admitted that coaching allowed them to create action plans for successful attempts to control or change the situation by applying an idea that seemed simple and doable, in such a way that would turn out powerful at the end. The participants admitted that coaching allowed them to successfully improve many aspects of well-being or emotional intelligence. Coaching was evaluated as an efficient approach as it provided guidance, focus, a safe place to brainstorm ideas, a coach became an accountability partner and really helped on the way to success. Here is an observation one participant shared about improvements she noticed in her emotional intelligence levels:

"Working on emotional intelligence allowed me to improve in 'awareness of own emotions' area the most. I was able to observe my emotions with greater awareness and understanding and if I realized that they were getting out of hand, I became more open to admitting that and discussing it with my coach. On the other hand, during the coaching sessions

I learned how to observe the emotions of others better, which also allowed me to make better decisions."

Here are some quotes from what participants shared during the closing interviews about the efficiency of coaching they have received:

"Now I have the tools to manage similar situations myself and I feel equipped to handle even harder challenges."

"I have a sense of what questions to ask myself to move forward."

The most valuable aspects of coaching

The most valuable aspects of coaching listed by the participants of the Coaching Program were: having a non-judgmental, safe environment with an always supportive and available unbiased listener; getting "unstuck" on numerous occasions; increased self-awareness, self-discovery, better perception; being able to use all the resources available and all the strengths one has to one's advantage; as well as being in the center of the coaching process.

"You can achieve the best you can do."

"Coaching helps you uncover things you don't know about yourself, it allows you to ask and answer questions you've never asked yourself before."

"The agenda is truly different every time, which helps because what's important for me today may not be on my mind the week after."

The participants mentioned many valuable factors that coaching brought to their every day functioning. Nearly all participants admitted that coaching allowed them to reach a more optimal functioning and better every day experience. The participants stated that they are able to make better decisions - decisions that come from better understanding of their motivations and also their values. Having an awareness that professional or personal decisions are made based on integrity allowed the participants for greater self acceptance and in general created greater

well-being. On many occasions, the participants noticed that observing one's own emotions and working on aspects of emotional intelligence allows them to see themselves under a magnifying glass, understand themselves better and accept themselves for who they are. With that understanding and acceptance came confidence to make the right choices.

"Being aware of the definitions of Emotional Intelligence and being coached towards improving the four categories helped. Made me aware of their existence, their meaning for me and significance in general. I also started analyzing in a more conscious way how people react to what I say, and slowly noticed and then understood why people feel a certain way when they hear and answer my questions. Understanding that made me start asking a completely different set of questions. I think I really understood myself, my curiosity, why I want to know certain things, and then I was able to find confidence to simply ask."

The least valuable aspects of coaching

The least valuable aspects mentioned by the coachees were mostly focused around the discovery phase and how long it takes at times to precisely specify what is the goal that the coachee wants to achieve and how to go about it. One of the participants, for example, worked hard during three coaching sessions to realize that it is not necessary that people perceive all changes as good. And although it is not an obvious assumption that people necessarily need to make, this participant was very frustrated that it took her so long to realize it and admit it. Her thinking was that if she explains rationally the context and background (rationale) for change then automatically she will get the understanding of the people. What took her longer to realize was that she would then take it very personally and emotionally when someone did not understand her explanation.

From the discovery that - indeed - not everyone on the team perceives changes as good, even if they are presented thoroughly, to the action plan, this participant took extra 2 weeks. She decided to do the following: (1) shift away from the responsibility of making people understand and (2) admit openly when she was nervous (it allowed her for better control of her emotions and better communication). And although she correctly recognized her problem and found an

efficient approach that she was able to apply in a work setting, she was disappointed in herself and the coaching process that the discovery phase took so long.

Some of the participants wanted to see changes happening quicker. In some cases it took participants even 3 weeks to test out an experiment change or behavior, gather their own observations, analyze them and decide whether or not the new, experiment approach worked or not. Here is what one of them shared:

"*I would have wanted changes to happen at a faster pace. Seeing things happening quicker for me would have pushed me to cover even more in a coaching session and work even harder in between."*

Important shifts in thinking

The participants of the Coaching Program noticed many shifts in their thinking. Most of the participants said that they started perceiving feedback that they receive from their colleagues as a way to improve and feel better equipped to accept feedback and act on it in a constructive way that leads to growth. Nearly all of the coachees stated that they are able to manage many processes and projects better - not only when working towards their individual goals, but also when working on organizational goals, or when working with the team towards finalizing a project. The majority experienced a significant shift in how they think about themselves: increased self-acceptance, allowing time for self-discovery to learn, increased self-awareness, and better perception of their strengths.

"I find myself less impulsive, I'm more patient with myself and definitely have greater self-confidence."

The majority of the participants admitted many areas which "unlocked" for them as a result of the coaching sessions. One of the examples was becoming more open to experimentation. One of the coaching techniques used - the *Desired Shift Cycle* - has a step that requires experimentation. Many participants, while working through the cycle of change, have

realized that experimentation brought many innovative ideas that allowed them to improve their day to day functioning.

Many participants became more action-oriented and more results-oriented thanks to the coaching program. One of the steps of a coaching session in the ICF's Core Competency Model (ICF, 2019a) is designing actions in order to reach goals. Actions are being designed in a way that allows coachee to specify when their goals are being achieved and when not - such approach creates a shift in coachee's mindset towards being more action-oriented and results-oriented. Other participants realized how much they are able to influence in their life, work and environment. Here is what one of them shared during the interview:

"I realized that I can shape my environment and that I do have an impact, so I might as well use that impact to shape my own environment."

CHAPTER 4. Discussion of findings.

The final chapter of Part III is the discussion of findings: a thorough evaluation of the coaching program is conducted and later in this chapter we take a look at the psychoeducational role that coaching played in the experiment, obtained results and observed changes.

4.1 Evaluation of the Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Program

This study sought to evaluate the role of coaching in developing emotional intelligence and well-being of adults at an early stage of their career (24-35 years), college or university graduates, currently in the workforce. The results indicated that the Coaching Program led to increased emotional intelligence and well-being at the completion of the program.

All levels of EI and its dimensions - self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion - have improved upon completion of the Coaching Program. The participants have also reported significant improvements of Well-Being and its dimensions - autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Because of the interest of participants in developing their emotional intelligence and well-being, certain sessions of the Coaching Program were in some cases focused specifically on a particular dimension of EI or Well-Being. In other cases, the coaching sessions and the agenda brought by the participants to these sessions required involving one of these dimensions in order to fully address the issues. In either case, an increased levels of both emotional intelligence and well-being along with all their dimensions have been registered upon completion of the Coaching Program.

The improvements in four dimensions of emotional intelligence as described by Salovey and Mayer (1990) can be characterized as follows: (1) improved *self-emotion appraisal* is an increased ability to understand and assess individual's deep emotions and to express these emotions naturally, (2) improved *others' emotion appraisal* is an increased ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others, (3) improved *regulation of emotions* is an increased ability to regulate one's own emotions, which enables a quicker recovery from psychological distress, (4) improved *use of emotions* is an increased ability to direct the emotions towards

constructive activities and individual (personal or professional) performance. The results obtained in this study are consistent with the study by Dippenaar & Schaap (2017), which also provided substantiated empirical evidence of the positive impact of coaching on emotional intelligence. The authors noted significant positive impact of coaching on the following components of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, self-regard and empathy.

The characteristics of high scorers of the six scales of Psychological Well-being as described by Ryff (1989) are as follows: (1) *autonomy* - a high scorer is self-determining and independent, (2) *environmental mastery* - a high scorer has a sense of mastery and competence in managing the environment, (3) *personal growth* - a high scorer has a feeling of continued development, (4) *positive relations with others* - a high scorer has warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others, (5) *purpose in life* - a high scorer has goals in life and a sense of directedness, (6) *self-acceptance* - a high scorer possesses a positive attitude towards the self. The results of the Coaching Program suggest therefore that coaching enhances many important aspects of well-being and positive psychological health. This is consistent with the results obtained in the study by Grant (2003), which also found significant increases in well-being measures and several other studies (Grant & O'Hara, 2006; Leach *et al*., 2011). According to Grant (2003) coaching helps individuals carry out desired and successful changes, which directly enhances their well-being. The focus of the coaching process is on wellness, and various aspects of quality of life - hence its benefits positively impact well-being (Grant, 2003; Grant & O'Hara, 2006).

It was observed throughout the Coaching Program that the participants perceived the program as efficient and beneficial long before its completion. Coaching has been evaluated as the right approach towards achieving individual goals, improving skills, planning, improving performance, or staying on track. As all of the participants volunteered to sign up for the program, they were all highly motivated and committed to following through and accomplishing it. At the end of the program, the participants' attrition rate was zero.

The participants of the Coaching Program mentioned many benefits of coaching that they have experienced and many improvements that followed. Some of the examples mentioned are: better professional performance, greater skills - both practical and soft skills, higher self-worth, greater sense of value, improved wellbeing, more control over their learning, feeling empowered to develop new skills, empowerment to overcome challenges, greater appreciation of teammates and colleagues, better ability to accept and act on constructive feedback, better sense of direction, better ability to specify one's desires and set the right goals.

The most valuable aspects of coaching mentioned by the participants of the Coaching Program were: having a non-judgmental, safe environment, increased self-awareness, self-discovery, better perception, being able to use all the resources available and all the strengths one has to one's advantage. The participants highly appreciated that a coach is an unbiased listener and that coaching sessions provided them with a safe space to talk about work, vulnerability, goals, inability to cope with interpersonal conflict, difficulty facing criticism or constructive feedback, next career steps to mention just a few examples. The confidentiality of the coaching sessions allowed for self-discovery, discussing change, planning for transformation and analyzing or even taking risks without fear of being judged by teammates or work colleagues.

As a result of a great coaching relationship, the coach and the coachee established a deep, high-quality connection. Dutton and Heaphy (2003) define such connection as one that has high emotional capacity and connectivity. When the coach offers empathy, trust, and emotional support, a coachee experiences positive emotions and becomes more open: emotionally, physically and cognitively (Quinn & Dutton, 2002). The experience of a high-quality coaching relationship endows individuals with increased feelings of energy and positive regard (Van Oosten, 2010), and enhances self-awareness and learning. It is when the coach offers empathy and trust as the foundation of a coaching relationship, the coachees engage in deeper self-reflection, which expands self-awareness and learning.

4.2 The psychoeducational role of coaching

Psychoeducation and the availability of studying materials - *Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Handbook* - was an important factor that largely contributed to the success of the Coaching Program. The Coaching Program not only incorporated coaching tools and techniques, but also practices applied in the fields of adult learning - which overall resulted in more effective growth and development of the participants (McEnrue *et al.*, 2010). The coaching sessions were built around important elements of participant's professional (and personal) life, selected by the participant and brought to the coach to discuss during the coaching sessions. Throughout the duration of the program, coachees made important discoveries and gained knowledge about themselves. They were able to align that knowledge with the goals they set and work towards them, which enhanced their learning process and contributed to the success of the program (Bland, 2005).

Jones *et al*. (2016) consider coaching a high quality form of training and development and suggest that adult learning theories provide essential guidelines for setting up an effective coaching process. As Cherniss *et al*. (1998) suggest - emotional and social learning benefits appear when an individual sets specific, clear and challenging goals. Such an approach constitutes a foundation of the coaching process. The coach works with individuals as they create solutions to problems, set their goals, and develop action plans to reach these goals (Grant, 2010). When goals are specific, clear and challenging enough, motivation and self-efficacy of an individual are the highest (Cherniss *et al*., 1998). The importance of goal setting, which underlines an efficient coaching process, has also scientifically grounded in adult and self-regulated learning theories (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011).

Coaching initiates and maintains a continuous cycle of learning which occurs through stages of discovering, applying and integrating knowledge (Griffiths and Campbell, 2009). And so, new knowledge is being discovered through a process of relating, questioning, reflecting, and listening. When new knowledge is being applied, accountability helps coachees take actions based on their recent learning. This stage is deepened by questioning (Griffiths and Campbell,

2009). At the end, taking responsibility for one's own change and learning is what allows coachees to integrate new knowledge.

An example of a coaching technique used by the coach in this study is the *Desired Shift* Cycle consisting of the following stages: (1) situation, (2) observation, (3) analysis, (4) direction, (5) experiment, and (6) shift. A continuous cycle of learning described by Griffiths and Campbell occurs along the entire cycle of *Desired Shift*. "Discovering" occurs during stages (1)-(4), "applying" occurs during stage (5) and "integrating knowledge" occurs at the last stage. Additionally, the *Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Handbook* has extensively supported the participants' learning during stage (2) and (3) of the *Desired Shift*.

The participants of the Coaching Program stated that the program and available psychoeducational materials allowed them to take control of their own learning process. Increased self-awareness gained from the coaching sessions allowed the participants to identify improvement areas and target them. Coaching has proven to be a valuable process in which a coach established a relationship with the participants of the Coaching Program and facilitated their further development. In that sense, the Coaching Program fits in with teaching and learning approaches, as it provided a coachee-focused (learner-focused) agenda and program. As such, coaching helped the participants (learners) progress in their achievements and improve their performance.

The Coaching Program created for this study has been structured around teaching coachees to grow as professionals and as human beings. The coach - whose role can be also perceived as the role of an educator (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac, 2009) - facilitated coachees' development across multiple domains: physical, cognitive, cultural, social and moral. The participants of the Coaching Program stated that the educational materials on emotional intelligence and well-being discussed in the *Emotional Intelligence & Well-Being Coaching Handbook*, as well as new techniques learnt during the coaching sessions contributed to increased EI and well-being. The psychoeducational aspect of coaching has shown to be paramount in enhancing emotional intelligence, well-being and overall development of the participants.

PART IV: Conclusions, limitations and practical applications.

Part IV of the study gives an overview of its limitations, gives directions for future research and discusses the practical applications of the results obtained. The final chapter summarizes conclusions.

CHAPTER 1. Limitations of the study

This chapter gives an overview of the limitations of the study - in particular the choice of the study sample, questionnaires, and the study design itself.

1.1 Sample

This study presents with a number of limitations, which may affect the generalizability of the obtained results. First of all, a non probability convenience sample was used - the participants of the program were all volunteers, and all employees of a technical industry startup in Barcelona. As volunteers, familiar with the content and objective of the Coaching Program, the participants could have been more motivated to achieve their goals, and more focused on enhancing emotional intelligence and well-being. Second of all, a single company has been chosen to conduct the study, which may also limit the generalizability of the results. A single company may not represent the characteristics and dynamics of the general population of the industry.

Third, a small sample has been chosen to conduct research with only 20 participants. Such small sample has a limited statistical power, which also limits the robustness and validity of statistical conclusions obtained. Also, a sample size of N=20 was insufficiently large to utilize structural equation model analysis. According to Nesselroade (1991) "*a structural equation model is a hypothesis about the structure of relationships among measured variables in a specific population*". A valid factor analysis, for example, would require approximately 10 times the number of participants in the Experiment Group in order to factor analyze the variables in this study (Wolf et al., 2013). More reliable findings would be obtained if this study was repeated with a larger participant sample.

1.2 Questionnaires & study design

The use of both questionnaires - Scales of Psychological Well-Being and Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale - allowed to evaluate the levels of well-being and emotional intelligence of the Experiment Group and the general population. However, these are both self-report inventories. According to Murphy & Davidshofer (1998), the use of self-report inventories presents with some limitations - the answers submitted by respondents may not necessarily reflect the *actual* state adequately and be slightly skewed toward their perceived *desired* state. As Dunning *et al.* (2004) point out, the respondents are typically biased and unreliable when assessing their own abilities. Relevant issues when measuring well-being may be, for example, general tendency to give more positive responses to questions or even faking better responses, which may lead to an error variance within collected dataset. Issues when measuring emotional intelligence, especially when working with managers or team leaders, may be a general tendency to want to appear more empathetic than one truly is (which would affect *others' emotion appraisal*). Lack of self awareness may also get in the way when respondents are evaluating their own *regulation of emotion*. Self-report recall biases in case of self-report inventories could be eliminated by the use of additional objective reports submitted by peers and colleagues of the participants, which would improve the scientific rigor of a study (Diener, 2000).

Using specific types of questionnaires (like The Scales of Psychological Well-Being and Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale in this study) sets a certain focus on the aspects only mentioned (or mostly mentioned) in the questionnaires. It may happen that when using another well-being scale, or a different questionnaire measuring other constructs of emotional intelligence, the results would not have been the same, including direction of change as well as magnitude.

It is also possible that the use of quasi-experimental study design allowed different variables and factors to influence the outcome of the study. In this study, age and gender were monitored and did not prove to have significant relevance for the increase in emotional intelligence and well-being levels when compared pre- and post-coaching. However, the

possibility that other factors may have played a role, cannot be ruled out. Both the qualitative and quantitative research results indicate that significant improvements in both well-being and emotional intelligence levels following the Coaching Program had taken place.

CHAPTER 2. Directions for future research and practical applications.

This chapter gives directions for future research and discusses the practical applications of the results obtained - both for the coaching practitioners as well as organizations who are looking for approaches that could result in improved well-being and emotional intelligence of the employees.

2.1 Directions for future research.

Future research that would improve the applicability of the results should involve more longitudinal empirical study designs with larger samples and using randomised experimental and control groups. Such a robust approach would help to validate the impact of coaching on well-being and emotional intelligence. Replicating the study across multiple companies, organizations or even industries would also enhance the validity of obtained results. Given the limitations of self-reported inventories, future studies would benefit from inclusion of assessments that allow teammates or direct managers to evaluate the participants of the study (360-degree assessment is an example). The accuracy of participants' self-perception could then be measured by comparing the variance of self-evaluation with the variance of evaluation by others (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017).

Future research may also be improved by using qualitative methods to determine which components of the Coaching Program were the most valuable to the participants, which characteristics of both coaches and participants allowed to create a successful coaching relationship, in order to track and evaluate these components and characteristics throughout the duration of the program. Such profound and complex approach to the coaching process and its impact on well-being and emotional intelligence would shed more light on the very sophisticated human dynamic that occurs within the coaching process - during the coaching sessions and outside, in real life and workplace settings. Such an approach would allow to gather more information on key processes that drive the enhancement of well-being and emotional intelligence.

Moreover, similar evidence-based coaching programs can be utilized to further investigate such positive psychological constructs like resilience, meaning or purpose. Future research uncovering new information about these constructs would help grow our knowledge and understanding about how to build these strengths and consequently how to utilize coaching to implement these learnings.

2.2 Practical applications

This empirical study has been conducted in a real-time organizational setting with actual employees as opposed to other studies often found in the literature which utilize theoretical setting with college students as participants. Therefore the results of this study have a number of implications for the practical application of coaching in organizations, specifically those aiming at enhancing well-being and emotional intelligence of the employees at an early stage of their career. The study also brings practical applications to the coaching profession and coaches who would like to focus their coaching practice on enhancing the well-being and emotional intelligence of their coachees.

There are a few coaching strategies and theories that the author found particularly helpful when working with the Experiment Group. The most supportive - in this experiment - were: (1) Core Competency Model (ICF, 2019a), (2) strength-based approach, (3) goal-focused approach, (4) and self-determination theory. It is therefore the author's belief that the coaching strategy based on these four approaches can be successful when working with individuals on enhancing their well-being and emotional intelligence. The benefits of such approaches and coaching strategies based on these are outlined below.

The coaching skills characterized in detail by the Core Competency Model that were most helpful during the coaching sessions for the coach were: active listening, the ability to ask powerful questions and create awareness, especially when discussing sensitive situations. As in any strength-based approach - an approach derived from positive psychology - in coaching, change occurs by focusing on positive emotion and core strengths. What the author found particularly helpful when working with the Experiment Group was that when coachees focused on their strengths rather than weaknesses, they immediately "knew" what to do and felt capable,

which improved their motivation, dedication, well-being and energy level. The author felt like this approach helped engage the coachee quicker, on a deeper level and helped them reach their goals in a more efficient way.

In coaching, focus on goals increases goal attainment and well-being, and helps keep the focus directed on what is important to move forward. It is a very rewarding focus for the coach and the coachee, as it allows the coachee to grow in the direction they chose and for both the coach and the coachee it creates many opportunities to celebrate “small successes". The author found these celebrations very helpful as a way of acknowledging coachee’s hard work and rewarding their achievements. These processes - acknowledgment and celebration - when written into the coaching process make the coaching relationship deeper and stronger, which allows the coachee to deepen their learning, increase self-awareness and reach their goals more efficiently.

Self-Determination Theory emphasizes the importance of autonomous goals, which are set based on intrinsic motivators and intend to help meet psychological needs of competence, autonomy and psychological relatedness (Curtis & Kelly, 2013). The author found working with intrinsic motivators also very efficient in terms of reaching coaching goals. When coachees design actions that support their psychological needs and start engaging in autonomy-supportive, relatedness-supportive and competence-supportive behaviors, they notice positive changes occurring - at first - in their interactions with their teams or in their project engagement. While working with coachees from the Experiment Group, the author noticed changes occurring relatively quickly - from one coaching session to the next. Such pace proved very encouraging for coachees, their self-acceptance, their self worth, and their well-being. Consequently, this motivated them to further engage in more autonomy-supportive, relatedness-supportive and competence-supportive behaviors. In author’s subjective opinion such approach also had an impact on emotional intelligence - *use of emotion* dimension. With clearer focus on *desired* and *healthy* behaviors, coachees displayed a better ability to use their emotions to achieve desired outcomes.

The quantitative and qualitative results obtained in the present study provide empirical evidence of the potential benefits that coaching can bring to organizations. Having an effective

well-being enhancement strategy in a workplace has shown to reduce sickness, increase trust, employee loyalty and discretionary effort, which results in more optimal outcomes that an organization can reach (Hesketh & Cooper, 2019). Coaching could also be used to enhance well-being as a mental health promotion approach, not only in organizations. Well-being is an important individual, social and economic measure, gaining more and more focus in social research (Prescott, 2010). There is also growing interest in promotion and prevention for mental health. Promotion, or even early intervention strategies in organizations would focus on burnout and stress reduction and prevention, problem solving skills training and increasing optimism. As this study has provided evidence for enhanced well-being following the Coaching Program, coaching as an approach could be considered as a well-being enhancing strategy in organizations.

Emotional intelligence has been indicated to improve effectiveness of employees in organizations. Scientific research has linked higher emotional intelligence scores with better job performance (Boyatzis, 2009; Côté & Miners, 2006). The participants of the Coaching Program also mentioned these improvements: better performance and efficiency in their role, greater skills - both practical and soft and feeling empowered to develop new skills. Previous research, statistical and qualitative results obtained in this study may therefore encourage organizations wanting to develop their employees and leaders to introduce coaching as a learning and development approach to enhance emotional intelligence and performance.

CHAPTER 3. Conclusions

The objective of this study was to evaluate the role of coaching in developing emotional intelligence and well-being of adults at an early stage of their career (24-35 years), college or university graduates, currently in the workforce. The results showed that the Coaching Program led to increased emotional intelligence and well-being at the completion of the program. Emotional intelligence and well-being improved across all dimensions.

At the beginning of the program average emotional intelligence levels and its dimensions were slightly higher for female participants than for male participants. Respective scores across age groups (24-29 and 30-35) were mixed. At the beginning of the program average well-being level was slightly higher for female participants then for male participants. Well-being level was significantly higher amongst older participants, which was also consistent across almost all dimensions except *positive relations with others*, which was the same for both age groups. Age and gender did not have significant relevance for the increase in emotional intelligence and well-being of the participants going through the Coaching Program.

The presented study provided evidence that coaching may be an effective approach in enhancing emotional intelligence and well-being across all their dimensions. The empirical evidence of the impact of coaching on emotional intelligence and well-being is still very limited with very few scientifically grounded studies available especially focused on emotional intelligence. Robust research on the effectiveness of coaching in developing emotional intelligence is lacking (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017; Groves *et al*. 2008; McEnrue *et al*. 2010). There is also still limited - although growing - evidence that coaching can positively impact well-being (Leach *et al.*, 2011). The outcomes obtained in this study are therefore paramount for the development of various approaches towards enhancing emotional intelligence and well-being in various personal areas of life as well as in a professional work setting.

Coaching in organizations is not new. Coaching has found its place in the corporate world in the 1990s. According to Skiffington and Zeus (2003), "*coaching for career transition at senior leader levels is also a growing specialty for experienced coaches*". Workplace coaching,

as we know it today, includes many specialty fields that covers basically any business need there is: career coaching, executive leader coaching, transitions and mergers coaching, start-up coaching, or team coaching (Brock, 2014). The goal of career coaching is to work with coachees to make sure that they're making optimal decisions about their career - its development, direction or even profession. Coaching, as a solution-oriented approach helps coachees design specific actions that bring them to career objectives one step at a time.

At times, as a result of career coaching, a coachee realizes that the company they are working for, or a role they are working in is not aligned with their values or their purpose. If such a situation occurs, coaching may lead to a person transitioning to another role or even leaving the company. Although not career coaching *per se*, the coaching intervention employed in this research study resulted in one participant eventually leaving the company after having realized that another company offers a role that is better aligned with her values. Yet another participant decided to shift in her role and assume less responsibility related to people management and more responsibility related to expert and product-specific knowledge.

Coaching programs provide guidance and evidence for further research on psychological, pedagogical, social and cognitive processes that occur in individuals who wish to enhance their well-being, positive psychological functioning, and emotional intelligence. Coaching can be perceived as an enhancement or an alternative to traditional teaching and learning approach - facilitating more efficient learning practice and encouraging self-directed learning. The results obtained in this study emphasize the importance of so-called "soft skills" and encourage teaching such skills throughout the entire duration of education. Professional career coaching could be added at an earlier stage of education so that adults at an early stage of their career would not need to pay such a high price in terms of well-being, stress and potentially mental health problems for challenges they are facing at work. The findings from the Well-Being and Emotional Intelligence Coaching Program suggest that coaching may be a great pedagogical approach for such individuals and provide much needed preparation for their career.

The evaluation of the effectiveness of coaching is still very limited in scientifically grounded literature, however, the results obtained in this study provide evidence that coaching

can enhance emotional intelligence and well-being. The findings can be utilized by researchers investigating emotions in the workplace, well-being of employees and its impact on their professional functioning, developmental relationships and processes, or learning and development processes at work. Professional coaches may also find these results useful and directly applicable in their coaching practice. This study broadens a vast research and practical field with multiple opportunities for further research and applications in many practical settings.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Brief Symptom Inventory (for study inclusion)

During the past 7 days, how much were you distressed by (0 = Not at all 1 = A little bit 2 = Moderately 3 = Quite a bit 4 = Extremely):

1. Nervousness or shakiness inside 0 1 2 3 4
2. Faintness or dizziness 0 1 2 3 4
3. The idea that someone else can control your thoughts 0 1 2 3 4
4. Feeling others are to blame for most of your troubles 0 1 2 3 4
5. Trouble remembering things 0 1 2 3 4
6. Feeling easily annoyed or irritated 0 1 2 3 4
7. Pains in the heart or chest 0 1 2 3 4
8. Feeling afraid in open spaces 0 1 2 3 4
9. Thoughts of ending your life 0 1 2 3 4
10. Feeling that most people cannot be trusted 0 1 2 3 4
11. Poor appetite 0 1 2 3 4
12. Suddenly scared for no reason 0 1 2 3 4
13. Temper outbursts that you could not control 0 1 2 3 4
14. Feeling lonely even when you are with people 0 1 2 3 4
15. Feeling blocked in getting things done 0 1 2 3 4
16. Feeling lonely 0 1 2 3 4
17. Feeling blue 0 1 2 3 4
18. Feeling no interest in things 0 1 2 3 4
19. Feeling fearful 0 1 2 3 4
20. Your feelings being easily hurt 0 1 2 3 4
21. Feeling that people are unfriendly or dislike you 0 1 2 3 4
22. Feeling inferior to others 0 1 2 3 4
23. Nausea or upset stomach 0 1 2 3 4
24. Feeling that you are watched or talked about by others 0 1 2 3 4
25. Trouble falling asleep 0 1 2 3 4
26. Having to check and double check what you do 0 1 2 3 4
27. Difficulty making decisions 0 1 2 3 4
28. Feeling afraid to travel on buses, subways, or trains 0 1 2 3 4
29. Trouble getting your breath 0 1 2 3 4
30. Hot or cold spells 0 1 2 3 4
31. Having to avoid certain things, places, or activities because they frighten you 0 1 2 3 4
32. Your mind going blank 0 1 2 3 4

33. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body 0 1 2 3 4
34. The idea that you should be punished for your sins 0 1 2 3 4
35. Feeling hopeless about the future 0 1 2 3 4
36. Trouble concentrating 0 1 2 3 4
37. Feeling weak in parts of your body 0 1 2 3 4
38. Feeling tense or keyed up 0 1 2 3 4
39. Thoughts of death or dying 0 1 2 3 4
40. Having urges to beat, injure, or harm someone 0 1 2 3 4
41. Having urges to break or smash things 0 1 2 3 4
42. Feeling very self-conscious with others 0 1 2 3 4
43. Feeling uneasy in crowds 0 1 2 3 4
44. Never feeling close to another person 0 1 2 3 4
45. Spells of terror or panic 0 1 2 3 4
46. Getting into frequent arguments 0 1 2 3 4
47. Feeling nervous when you are left alone 0 1 2 3 4
48. Others not giving you proper credit for your achievements 0 1 2 3 4
49. Feeling so restless you couldn't sit still 0 1 2 3 4
50. Feelings of worthlessness 0 1 2 3 4
51. Feeling that people will take advantage of you if you let them 0 1 2 3 4
52. Feeling of guilt 0 1 2 3 4
53. The idea that something is wrong with your mind 0 1 2 3 4

Appendix B. Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

The questions below are administered on a 7 point Likert scale (*from 1: strongly disagree, to 7: strongly agree)*:

Self-emotion appraisal (SEA)

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.
3. I really understand what I feel.
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.

Others' emotion appraisal (OEA)

5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

Use of emotion (UOE)

9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11. I am a self-motivated person.
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.

Regulation of emotion (ROE)

13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16. I have good control of my own emotions.

Appendix C. Scales of Psychological Well-being

Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scales (PWB)

ELECTRONIC VERSION AVAILABLE AT https://pcyc.formstack.com/forms/pwb

Please indicate your degree of agreement (using a score ranging from 1 - 6) to the following sentences:		Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
1	I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am not interested in activities that will expand by horizons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Most people see me as loving and affectionate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	My decisions are not usually influenced by what everyone else is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	The demands of everyday life often get me down.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I have a sense of direction and purpose in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	In general, I feel confident and positive about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I tend to worry about what other people think of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	When I think about it, I haven't really improved much as a person over the years.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	My daily activities often seem trivial and unimportant to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I have a sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I don't have a good sense of what it is I'm trying to accomplish in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I like most aspects of my personality.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel overwhelmed by my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I do not enjoy being in new situations that require me to change my old familiar ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6

29	I enjoy making plans for the future and working to make them a reality.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	It's difficult for me to voice my own opinions on controversial matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing and growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	My attitude about myself is probably not as positive as most people feel about themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	I have been able to build a home and a lifestyle for myself that is much to my liking.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Scoring Instruction:

1. Recode negative phrased items (shaded in grey)
    - E.g. If a shaded score is 6, the adjusted score is 1. If a shaded score is 5, the adjusted score is 2, etc.

2. Add together the final degree of agreement in the 6 dimensions.
    - **Autonomy**: questions 1, 7, 13, 19, 25, 31, 37 _____/42
    - **Environmental Mastery**: questions 2, 8, 14, 20, 26, 32, 38 _____/42
    - **Personal Growth**: questions 3, 9, 15, 21, 27, 33, 39 _____/42
    - **Positive Relations**: questions 4, 10, 16, 22, 28, 34, 40 _____/42
    - **Purpose in Life:** questions 5, 11, 17, 23, 29, 35, 41 _____/42
    - **Self-acceptance:** questions 6, 12, 18, 24, 30, 36, 42 _____/42

TOTAL _____/252

DIMENSION	HIGH SCORER	LOW SCORER
AUTONOMY	Is self-determining and independent; able to resist social pressures to think and act in certain ways; regulates behavior from within; evaluates self by personal standards.	Is concerned about the expectations and important decisions; conforms to social pressures to think and act based on evaluations of others; relies on judgments of others.
ENVIRONMENTAL MASTERY	Has a sense of mastery and competence in managing the environment; controls complex array of external activities; makes effective use of surrounding opportunities; able to choose or create contexts suitable to personal needs and values.	Has difficulty managing everyday affairs; feels unable to change or improve surrounding context; is unaware of surrounding opportunities; lacks sense of control over external world.
PERSONAL GROWTH	Has a feeling of continued development; sees self as growing and expanding; is open to new experiences; has sense of realizing one's potential; sees improvement in self and behavior over time; is changing in ways that reflect more self knowledge and effectiveness.	Has a sense of personal stagnation; lacks sense of improvement or expansion over time; feels bored and uninterested with life; feels unable to develop new attitudes or behaviors.
POSITIVE RELATIONS WITH OTHERS	Has warm satisfying, trusting relationships with others; is concerned about the welfare of others; capable of strong empathy, affection, and intimacy; understands give and take of human relationships.	Has few close, trusting relationships with others; finds it difficult to be warm, open, and concerned about others; is isolated and frustrated in interpersonal relationships; not willing to make compromises to sustain important ties with others.
PURPOSE IN LIFE	Has goals in life and a sense of direction; feels there is meaning to present and past life; holds beliefs that give life purpose; has aims and objectives for living.	Lacks a sense of meaning in life; has few goals of aims, lacks sense of direction; does not see purpose of past life; has no outlook or beliefs that give life meaning.
SELF-ACCEPTANCE	Possesses a positive attitude toward the self; acknowledges and accepts multiple aspects of self, including good and bad qualities; feels positive about past life.	Feels dissatisfied with self; is disappointed with what has occurred in past life; is troubled about certain personal qualities; wishes to be different than what one is.

Appendix D. 10 Sessions Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program

University of Silesia

10 Sessions Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program will be conducted by Joanna Jarosz. It is part of a research project undertaken for a PhD in Social Sciences at the University of Silesia.

Session 1.
Individual program overview.
Initial intake forms and questionnaires (for Well-Being & Emotional Intelligence).
Getting familiar with the concepts:

- Coaching
- Emotional intelligence
- Well-being

Session 2.
Getting familiar with the tools & techniques used:

- GROW model
- SMART goals
- KASH model of change

Setting up the 1st coaching session in practice.

Sessions 3-9.
Coaching sessions.
Each session will have the following elements:

1. Self study of suggested topics covered in the *Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Handbook*.
2. Coaching sessions:
    - GROW model
    - SMART goals
    - KASH model
3. Coaching sessions will focus on one of the elements:
    - areas of Emotional Intelligence:
      (1) assessment and recognition of one's own emotions
      (2) assessment and recognition of emotion in others

(3) regulation of one's own emotions
(4) use of one's own emotions

- Well-being
  (1) autonomy
  (2) environmental mastery
  (3) positive relationships with others
  (4) purpose in life
  (5) personal growth
  (6) self-acceptance

Session 10.

Assessment of progress with final forms and questionnaires (Well-Being & Emotional Intelligence).

Summary of progress and closing remarks.

Appendix E. Information Sheet

University of Silesia

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program: Information Sheet

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program will be conducted by Joanna Jarosz. It is part of a research project undertaken for a PhD in Social Sciences at the University of Silesia.

The Goal:

The program and the participant's evaluation during the program is aimed at determining whether coaching is effective in helping you to develop skills in emotional intelligence as well as increase your well-being.

Duration:

The Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program will run over a 10 sessions period, which will include a detailed program overview, 8 coaching sessions, summary of progress and closing remarks.

What to expect:

(1) Getting familiar with the concepts of Emotional Intelligence and EI-related abilities (self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, regulation of emotion).
(2) Getting familiar with the concept of well-being and its components (personal growth, autonomy, self-acceptance, life purpose, positive relatedness and environmental mastery).
(3) Getting familiar with coaching tools and techniques used in the coaching program.
(4) Coaching sessions with particular focus on EI and well-being.

What not to expect:

(1) Therapy, counseling, mentoring, consulting, or training.

Inclusion:

For assessment purposes, certain information will be gathered (through Brief Symptom Inventory) to determine suitability to be involved in the coaching program. *This data will be kept confidential*.

What will be required from you:

(1) You will be asked to complete questionnaires at the beginning and at the end of the research time frame (10 sessions). The questionnaires are about your emotional intelligence level and your well-being level, and will take up to 30 minutes of your time to complete both.

(2) Your involvement in the coaching program and the evaluation is completely voluntary. You can withdraw at any time. However, the participants will be asked to commit to 10 sessions of the coaching program to assure that obtained results are significant.

Data processing:

Data will be processed by Joanna Jarosz. *All individual information gathered during the program will be kept confidential*.

Questions:

Should you have any questions regarding the program please contact Joanna Jarosz (email: *suitecoaching@gmail.com*).

Appendix F. Consent Form

University of Silesia

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program: Consent Form

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program will be conducted by Joanna Jarosz. It is part of a research project undertaken for a PhD in Social Sciences at the University of Silesia.

I have read the information regarding the Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program: (1) *Information Sheet*, (2) *10 Sessions Coaching Program Overview*, and have discussed the research project and the coaching program with Joanna Jarosz, who is conducting this research as part of a PhD program in Pedagogy and Psychology at the University of Silesia.

I understand that prior to my participation, I am required to complete an assessment questionnaire to determine my suitability for the coaching program (Brief Symptom Inventory). I understand that if I consent to participate in this program I will be required to complete questionnaires regarding Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being. I understand that all the information I give will remain confidential and that my participation is voluntary. I am free to withdraw from the program at any time.

I have been advised of the potential time commitment associated with this research and the coaching program and have had an opportunity to ask Joanna Jarosz any questions I may have about my participation.

I understand that if I have any questions regarding the coaching program or conduct of research, I should contact Joanna Jarosz (email: *suitecoaching@gmail.com*).

By signing below, I am indicating my consent to participate in the research entitled "*Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program*" conducted by Joanna Jarosz as it has been described to me in the information sheet and in discussion with Joanna Jarosz. I understand that the data collected from my participation will be used for a thesis publication and further acknowledge that my *individual* results will remain anonymous, with only group summaries presented. I therefore consent for it to be used in that manner.

Name (please print): _____

Date: _____

Signed:_____

Appendix G. Coaching and Confidentiality Agreement

University of Silesia

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program: Coaching & Confidentiality Agreement

Emotional Intelligence and Well-Being Coaching Program will be conducted by Joanna Jarosz. It is part of a research project undertaken for a PhD in Social Sciences at the University of Silesia.

1. The relationship between Coaching Program Participant and the Coach

Coaching is a partnership between the Coach and the Coaching Program Participant in which various areas of the Participant's personal and professional life are explored. The Coach abides by the Code of Ethics (https://coachfederation.org/code-of-ethics) as set by the International Coach Federation (ICF).

2. Term of Service

Achieving the results desired and expected by the Participant and Coach normally takes time. It is therefore asked that the Coach and the Participant commit to 10 sessions to allow time for changes and initial results to occur. Either party may terminate the coaching relationship at any time.

3. Scheduled Sessions

Regular coaching sessions will take place at a time and place agreed upon by the Coach and Participant.

4. Confidentiality

The Participant's identity, relationship, and content of the sessions are strictly confidential except in a situation where such confidentiality would violate the law or cause harm (as listed in the ICF's Code of Ethics cited above).

5. Liability

The Participant agrees and understands that the Coach is not a medical or physiological professional. The Coach is not a substitute for psychotherapy or medical practice. Coaching as described above is not

counseling, mentoring, or therapy. The Coach is not a psychologist, therapist, psychotherapist, business manager, financial advisor, headhunter, or accountant. The Coach is ethically and legally bound to refer the Participant to a mental health or medical professional if needed.

I have read this agreement and agree to abide by its terms and conditions.

Participant's name:_____ Participant's signature:_____

Date:_____ Coach's signature:_____

Appendix H. Desired Shift Cycle